DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 114 311 95 SO 008 659

AUTHOR	Linden, Glenn M., Ed.; Downey, Matthew T., Ed.
TITLE	Teaching American History: Structured Inquiry Approaches. SSEC Publication No. 185.
INSTITUTION	ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colo.; Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.d
REPORT NO	SSEC-Pub-185
PUB DATE	75
NOTE	111p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Publications, Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 (SSEC No. 185, $4.95 prepaid or purchase order)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$5.70 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS	Annotated Bibliographies; *History Instruction; *Inquiry Training; Instructional Materials; Interdisciplinary Approach; Local History; Primary Sources; Revolutionary War (United States); Role Playing; Secondary Education; *Social History; *Social Studies Units; Teaching Techniques; *United States History

ABSTRACT

This paper is one of a series of ERIC/ChESS publications intended to give practical tips on teaching various topics and disciplines in the precollege social studies curriculum. The tips offered in this publication, written by seven authors, are intended to help teacheres deal with both content and teaching strategies in American history. Each of five actual lessons provides examples of how to incorporate nontraditional subject matter using a structured inquiry approach into the regular American history curriculum. The structured inquiry approach requires the teacher, rather than the student, to select the content of the lesson and to predetermine the structure of the learning activity. The teacher does not have final answers but has a framework in which most student inquiry can occur. Chapter 1 introduces the work by examining reasons and processes for teaching history. Chapter 2 uses a role-play activity for examining the social history of American industrialization. Chapter 3 presents an interdisciplinary social science approach to the study of the American Revolution. Chapter 4 uses comparative data from other societies to illuminate the issue of American slavery. Chapter 5 describes several methods for active inquiry into local history. Chapter 6 provides short activities for developing information search skills. Chapter 7 contains an annotated list of American history resources including games, audiovisual materials, collections of documents, journals, and teacher resources. (Author/DE)

Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original.

ED114311

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY: STRUCTURED INQUIRY APPROACHES

Edited by

Glenn M. Linden and

Matthew T. Downey

Glenn M. Linden, Associate Professor of History and Education and Chairman of the Department of Education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas

Matthew T. Downey, Professor of History, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

SP 008 659

Published jointly by:

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colorado

and

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colorado

1975

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the National Council for the Social Studies for critical review and determination of professional competence. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the National Council for the Social Studies or the National Institute of Education.

ORDERING INFORMATION

This publication is available from:

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colorado 80302
(ORDER SSEC PUBLICATION NO. 185)

It is also listed in *Resources in Education* and can be obtained in microfiche and hard copy from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, identified as SO 008 659. See *Resources in Education* for ordering information and ED number.

ED0004

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Preface.....iii

Chapter I: Why Am I Teaching History Anyway? (And How Should I Teach It?).....1

by Douglas Alder, Associate Professor of History and Director of the Honors Program, Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Chapter II: A Social History Approach: Machine and Social Change in Industrial America.....11

by Matthew T. Downey, Professor of History, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

Chapter III: Interdisciplinary Approaches to the American Revolution: Questions of Causation and Meaning.....31

by John A. Mears, Associate Professor of History, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas

Chapter IV: Comparative History: Slavery in Cuba, Brazil, and the United States.....49

by Glenn Linden, Associate Professor of History and Education and Chairman of the Department of Education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas Texas

Chapter V: Grass Roots History.....69

by Fay D. Metcalf, History and Social Studies Teacher, Boulder High School, Boulder, Colorado

Chapter VI: The Information Wizard.....87

by Douglas Alder, Associate Professor of History and Director of the Honors Program, Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Chapter VII: American History Resources.....93

by Donald English, Abstractor/Editor, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colorado

00005

PREFACE

This paper is one of a series of ERIC/ChESS publications intended to give "tips" on teaching various topics and disciplines in the pre-college social studies curriculum. The "tips" offered here are intended to help teachers deal with both content and teaching strategies in American history courses.

The editors and authors of this paper have found in their work with history teachers that many--perhaps a majority--are uncomfortable with the extreme open-endedness to which much of the "inquiry learning" movement has led. At the same time, these teachers do not wish to stay with, or return to, the rigidly structured teaching models of yesteryear. They are searching for approaches that combine varying measures of structure and of open-endedness in their teaching strategies, depending on their desired objectives.

It is the purpose of this paper to help teachers find a satisfactory "structured inquiry" approach or range of approaches. The editors and authors describe several different learning activities showing differing degrees and combinations of structuring and open-endedness. At the same time, the lessons described provide examples of how to incorporate non-traditional subject matter into the regular American history curriculum. The chapters present ways to use ideas and materials from disciplines other than history in teaching American history topics; ways to use comparative data from other societies in illuminating issues in American history; ways to teach social history in addition to the traditional political and economic history of the United States; ways to use local history methods and data within American history; and ways to stimulate students to develop their skills in digging up information.

We hope that many teachers will find some new and useful ideas in this publication. A new look at both content and methods in the teaching of American history may be particularly appropriate as a part of the national celebration and soul-searching that may appropriately accompany our Bicentennial.

Irving Morrissett
Director, ERIC/ChESS
Executive Director, SSEC

00006

CHAPTER I

WHY AM I TEACHING HISTORY ANYWAY? (AND HOW SHOULD I TEACH IT?)

by

Douglas Alder

Check one:

_____ I was good at it in high school.

_____ I couldn't hack calculus in college.

_____ I'm needed here (making the world safe for democracy).

_____ Students thrive on history.

_____ Other. Explain. Attach additional sheets as necessary. Include bibliography if you wish.

Now, if that is solved, how about which history? Of all the options, why teach *American* history?

_____ I like it.

_____ The students desperately want it.

_____ The parents demand it.

_____ I am prepared to teach it.

_____ The nation needs it.

_____ Other. Explain. Attach additional sheets as necessary. Include bibilography if you wish.

These choices may elicit refreshing candor, or may simply be flippant. They do not reveal enough to satisfy the query, Why teach history? But they do invite a more serious consideration of those two challenging questions. Secondary school history teachers are feeling this pressure and need to decide whether they really can justify the public support they are receiving or would like to be receiving.

So it is not heretical to ask, Should the study of American history be required? Are legislators and board members, who guard that tradition, on solid ground? Can history teachers face students and themselves with a rationale that is more than self-serving justification?

Probably each history teacher has tried his hand at such questions.

00007

If not, its high time; if yes, the repetition is not a wasted endeavor. Occasional rethinking of what one is doing is generally rewarding.

Why Teach American History?

It's Interesting

Repeated surveys of student receptiveness to the school curriculum show history and social studies among the least popular high school courses. How, then, can we maintain that *interest* is one of history's virtues? Historians and history teachers have personally experienced the grip of adventure and insight found in history books and historical research. Like English teachers, who preserve the classics, we know there is great interest in history for those who get their feet wet--instead of just standing on the shore (throwing rocks). For evidence, we mention that history sells widely as general adult reading. Nonfiction writing, heavily historical, is among the highest paid. The Barbara Tuchmans, James Micheners, and their like command wide attention. Also history makes up much of the content for great theater and film. History has proved itself to be a gripping and profound primer for life. Our problem is, then, how to avoid killing the natural interest that students bring to the classroom.

It's Understandable

History has the good fortune of sharing an important commonality with students and laymen: plain English. Our craft's mode of communication is not a specialized jargon; rather, it is straightforward narrative language. Students can move into this study without the vocabulary apprenticeship necessary to understand the social sciences.

It's Very Personal

Perhaps the most relevant issue facing teenagers in high school is their own self-awareness. With a little skill, history teachers can help students discover that much of their own identities are rooted in the culture that has nurtured them. They have inherited their language, clothes, political ideologies, measurement systems, architecture, technology, reli-

00008 00040

gion, food, values, and much more from the historical past. They may say "so what" to these obvious realities, but wise teachers will let them discover themselves in an Abraham Lincoln, a Susan B. Anthony, a Martin Luther King, or an anonymous person from the past. The less obvious but more powerful realities--the achievement ethnic, the desire for possession or power, the love of freedom, the concern for security--can be gained from the past and are central to each student's identity.

It's Needed

Almost all societies have instituted some organized way to transmit the culture of their group to the new generation. In traditional (pre-agrarian) societies, youths were formally indoctrinated through ceremonies and rituals. They had to memorize long genealogies, oral traditions, and secret symbols, by which they came to discover their group and individual identities. Such inculcation was highly effective in preserving the tribe and helping individuals discover their purposes in life.

If our society is presently in difficulty, it may be because we now doubt the validity of formal cultural transmission. We have become a sophisticated society, moving from the agrarian to the industrial and from a monistic to a pluralistic value system. The school system is now the major remaining institution in our society dedicated to value transmission. The family and the church still exist in that field, reserving some values to themselves, but they have delegated other values, particularly those dealing with citizenship, to the schools. These values are not as easily agreed upon today as they were in simpler societies. Nonetheless, at a time when our American system is searching for an improved quality of life and a redefinition of its purpose, it is essential that we not cut ourselves adrift from our communal experience--our history.

It's Useful

Students of history not only discover the power of continuity, which may burden them with a considerable load of cultural baggage, but they find that *change* is a major force in modern society. For example, a student watching the Industrial Revolution invade America from England soon realizes that the same process is reaching every corner of the United States. Per-

010 00009

sons who plan to become secretaries should anticipate the employee displacements that will occur when the typewriter is made obsolete by an automated process replacing individual typists. They can develop a real kinship with the earlier workers--the blacksmiths, the elevator operators, the railroad firemen, and many more--who experienced obsolesence. More importantly they can anticipate such change and thus act upon the environment through career planning rather than merely flailing out against forces they cannot control.

Similarly, students of history can learn to be critical of the written word. Adapting the historians' method, they can question the validity of claims until documentary evidence is produced. Thus they can evaluate the continuing propaganda of extremists who would like to convince them that America is about to sink if she does not turn sharply to the right or left. Even a superficial view of American history shows that violence and conflict are common in our history and that such crises do not usually sink the ship of state. Also history is useful at the local level. An understanding of the inevitability of change in a single community provides a perspective from which to view the major changes in the United States and the world today. This understanding is sorely needed by those who will be making the important decisions in the world of tommorrow.

Processes for Teaching History

The common complaint about high school social studies is that fact memorization, lecture, and teacher-centered activities dominate (and bore) the students. Though such stereotypical teaching may continue, the problem has not been ignored. Social studies educators have not been idle in the last two decades of ferment in America. The Sputnik controversy in education stimulated community criticism and student dissatisfaction that led to substantial funding for curriculum development in most subjects. A "new social studies" developed, providing major changes in teaching-learning materials. One result has been that school resource centers today look altogether different from those of two decades ago; books are only one of the formats now used--simulations, artifact kits, media activities,

documents, even computer materials, illustrate the change that has occurred.

The format changes are only symptomatic of something more fundamental. The central developments have been in concept. The ideas of Jerome Bruner and Benjamin Bloom, among others, have helped teachers and developers focus on social studies more as a learning process than as a content product. Rather than concern chiefly about the factual information a student "knows" for a test, this approach emphasizes the process of deriving knowledge. This has often centered around the concept of *inquiry*.

Webster's dictionary suggests that inquiry is (1) an act of seeking truth or (2) an instance of asking for information. How often do students initiate either in school? Are they not more commonly listening to presentations they did not ask for or doing assigned activities? Does it not at least sometimes diminish their vitality if they are being acted upon instead of acting? Because increased motivation might result when students initiate the questions or seek information, curriculum developers are often attracted to the inquiry mode rather than the expository one. But how can one stimulate students to seek information? How can a teacher liberate the curiosity that seems to be innately packaged in youth? The initial round of "new social studies" materials did make modest headway in this quest.

Richard Suchman, Hilda Taba, Edwin Fenton, James Shaver, Richard Brown, and others have become nationally known for their advocacy of inquiry as a teaching mode, replacing or supplementing the expository methods (reading-recitation, film, lecture) so long identified with social studies. Projects such as the Carnegie-Mellon Social Studies Project (directed by Fenton) and the Project on American History (directed by Brown) provided learning activities, complete with documents, which enabled students to derive their own hypotheses, categories, and generalizations about history. The adventure of doing their own thinking by inquiry is the driving force for students of these and many of the other "new social studies" projects (such as the High School Geography Project, the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project, Sociological Resources for the Social Studies, and American Political Behavior).

This richly funded endeavor has produced highly respected learning

materials for students; but, in retrospect, many of the developers as well as practitioners have been mildly dismayed at the limited adoption by classroom teachers. The extent of dissemination is not inconsequential but is nonetheless disappointing.

In contrast, for example, simulations and games seem to have had wide and enthusiastic adoption. In fact, simulations share much with the "new social studies", since they are often prepared by developers, utilize new formats, emphasize process, promote inquiry skills, and require teachers to change from expository to facilitating roles. Why then have simulations and games been more widely used than the social studies projects? Some reasons may be that the project materials are so much more ambitious, generally occupying a whole semester or year rather than a day, week, or quarter. Teachers tend to resist adopting a whole package that controls their options. Another explanation is that teachers may have found many inquiry lessons too challenging to teach. An open inquiry strategy demands teaching skills that are difficult for many teachers. Also, some students feel uncomfortable under the pressure that inquiry discussions bring. Rather than defending a hypothesis they might generate in inquiry lessons, they choose to be silent, thereby avoiding the responsibility.

Structured Inquiry Approaches

Those and other difficulties with inquiry teaching have caused some to abandon the strategy while others have sought a modification. The editors and contributors to this booklet fall in the latter category. They share a respect for inquiry as stimulating a higher level of thinking that will help students more than expository lessons, but feel that more structure is needed in inquiry lessons. They suggest that there can be a spectrum from nearly unstructured inquiry to highly structured inquiry that still maintains some elements of student quest and initiative. Here are some examples of such variety (Figure 1.):

ED 00012

Figure 1.

Structured Inquiry	*Moderately Structured*	*Fairly Unstructured*
Questioning Techniques:		
Teacher elicits specific student questions with fairly tight conclusion as goal.	Teacher presents provocative stimuli for open reaction by students. Teacher remains silent as much as possible--accepts all answers.	Students initiate questions. Teacher turns them to class for answers and moderates results.
Debriefing Exercises:		
Students are given excerpts from film script and asked to extrapolate a concept (any one they wish) from each.	Students are divided into task groups, each with a specific question to answer--but results can be open ended.	Teacher asks students, What do you think of the film? and allows open discussion.
Teacher Roles in a Discussion:		
Taba style: Teacher presents data. Students extrapolate concept or generalization. The conclusion is moderately predetermined.	Suchman style: Students ask questions to which teacher can answer only yes or no.	Rogers/Postman style: Students initate own questions. Teacher does not judge.
Simulations/games:		
Dangerous Parallel is an example. It has assigned roles, portfolios, and published charts that tabulate chance outcomes. Students do their own negotiating over several days.	Cities is an example. A board, chance cards and roles are provided. Negotiating is totally spontaneous. Teacher functions only as timekeeper but keeps students paced.	Star Power and Arms & Resources are examples. They have very few rules and practically no materials; they allow maximum student action and latitude. Nonetheless, a basic concept underlies each.

ED 090013

The structured inquiry approaches used in this volume can be characterized as follows:

1) The teacher, rather than the students, selects the content of the lesson as well as the learning materials. He or she looks for topics that are sufficiently important to warrant in-depth study and materials that will interest and challenge the students.
2) The teacher develops a conscious learning-teaching strategy in advance. He or she does not have final answers but has a framework within which most of this inquiry can occur.
3) This predetermined structure helps set the boundaries of the learning activity. The inquiry is still genuinely open to the students' own thinking and the teacher is not aiming at some predetermined answer.
4) The conclusions students and teachers reach in the structured inquiry activities have at least some degree of tentativeness to them. Both students and teachers recognize that they are making decisions or drawing conclusions on insufficient information. This may bother those who are accustomed to closure or who want firm decisions, but it is beneficial for them to discover that decisions (even those made at high levels) share similar weaknesses. Often some conclusions cannot be postponed until all possible data is gathered. So too in the classroom, teachers and students may have to make tentative decisions based on limited knowledge without abandoning reverence for data and scholarship.

The following chapters present examples of structured inquiry activities that can be incorporated easily into existing teaching programs. For example, the lesson on comparative slavery (Chapter IV), with its documents on slave life in Cuba, Brazil, and the Old South, could be used by an American history teacher as part of a unit on the antebellum period. In addition to the usual texts and books such as *Uncle Tom's Cabin* by Harriet Beecher Stowe and Fredrick Douglass' autobiography. The teacher can use materials that add a comparative dimension. If this proves successful the teacher may want to treat other parts of American

history in a comparative manner--urbanization, the frontier, and colonization, to cite three examples. The other chapters in this volume offer similar possibilities for employing structured inquiry lessons to teach nontraditional approaches to American history topics within the existing curriculum. Chapter II utilizes a role-play activity for examining a slice of social history. Chapter III presents an interdisciplinary approach to the study of the American Revolution. Chapter V offers several suggestions for active inquiry into local history. Chapter VI describes a variety of short activities for developing information search skills. And Chapter VII contains an annotated list of additional teaching resources.

We hope that teachers will try out these materials and ideas and be stimulated by them to develop other similar lessons. We believe that a structured inquiry approach offers a way in which many teachers can maintain the advantages of inquiry without sacrificing all structure and organization.

Chapter II

A SOCIAL HISTORY APPROACH: MACHINE AND SOCIAL CHANGE IN INDUSTRIAL AMERICA

by

Matthew T. Downey

Introduction

An approach to the American past through social history is nothing very new. Historians and teachers alike have recognized over the years that a history which concentrates on the public and political events of the past misses much of the richness and complexity of the American experience. James Harvey Robinson's call in 1912 for a "New History" was an early recognition that a meaningful history had to include more than the traditional political, military, and diplomatic topics. The *History of American Life* series launched by Arthur M. Schlesinger, Sr., and Dixon Ryan Fox in the 1920s was a full-scale effort to write a social history of the American people. Various other voices since then have expressed their discontent with more traditional approaches to history and have proposed social history alternatives.

Until quite recently social history did not have much impact either on the way American history has been written or taught. History textbooks continue to reflect a political history bias, a "presidential synthesis," as Thomas Cochran (1948) once put it. While the conservatism of authors and publishers may be partly responsible for this, it must also be said that what has passed for social history has not contributed very much to a fuller understanding of American society. As one historian has described it, "Until very recently, American social history was written from the perspective of the dominant culture. It dealt with elites rather than common people, with institutions rather than social processes, with attitudes rather than experiences" (Hareven 1971, p. vii). It was the history of social problems and social reform written largely from the reformers' point of view and of social institutions from the perspective of the people in control. While it claimed

00016

to be interested in the lives of ordinary people, it was in fact more concerned about the elites who represented them.

During the past decade a new kind of social history has gained in popularity. It is more concerned about how American society is put together, how it functions, and how both have changed over time. It focuses on "those patterns of human interaction which relate some people and differentiate others, which reflect characteristics held by some in common and by others in distinction" (Hays 1971, p. 329. One can get some sense of the variety of directions that social historians have taken in recent years from Lankford and Reimers 1970 and Thernstrom and Sennett 1969.) As such the "new social history" is better able to deal with social behavior and cultural values in a pluralistic society. Above all else this approach to social history presents a broader focus. It is as much concerned with those "anonymous Americans" who did not make national reputations as it is with elites. (While history "from the bottom up" is not new, it has received greater emphasis during the past decade than ever before. For a statement of its importance, see Lemisch 1968. The historians' interest in the lower ranks of 19th century American society has also been reflected in a series of social mobility studies. Thernstrom 1964 was one of the earlies and most influential of these studies.) It has given more attention to the family, the work situation, the ethnic group--those more immediate social realities within which Americans have lived. It is a shift of scale from a national, public, great-man centered history to a grass roots, ordinary-person centered study of the past.

A social history approach based on this newer perspective offers various possibilities for changing and enriching American history courses. It suggests a significantly different organization for the U.S. survey course, one which examines the process by which the structure of contemporary American society has emerged. It provides a way to reintegrate aspects of social history which have become disjointed and isolated in recent years. In a social history framework, ethnic history, women's history, and other neglected social histories can be given appropriate attention without separating them from a larger historical context. It would mean, for example, examining the changing role of women as a consequence of industrialization at the same time that one is exploring changes in a variety of other roles

and institutions. But the inclusion of social history would not necessarily require the entire restructuring of an existing course.

Incorporating social history into a more traditional course may also make American history more interesting and relevant to students. The social history unit presented here, one which examines changing relationships between factory workers, their work, and their employers, could easily be used in that way. It would only mean that after teaching a more traditional economic history unit on industrialization, the teacher would explain that the growth of industrial technology and the development of the factory system affected the people involved in many unforeseen ways. The class would then examine closely a few aspects of the consequent social changes.

Finally, social history provides an easy entrée to local history and historical research. Not every community produced an Andrew Carnegie or an Abraham Lincoln or was the site of a major battlefield or figured largely in national history in any way. But social history happened everywhere. It is the history of every community's families, their migration and mobility patterns, the working lives of its men and women, the groups with which they identified, and the changes within the community that affected their lives.

As the lesson below also illustrates, social history lends itself easily to inquiry-oriented teaching and learning. Primary source materials exist for examining social conditions and change as well as for more traditional political topics. They exist in the form of firsthand accounts and memoirs, social surveys, records of hearings of legislative committees, census data, local city directories, and oral history. However, a caution is in order. Commercially produced sets of social history materials are not yet as common as those for more traditional approaches to American history. The teacher must be prepared to assemble his or her own classroom materials from a variety of sources.

The purpose of the following unit is to help students understand that industrialization in 19th-century America was a development in social as well as economic history. Some aspects of that social history do receive more or less attention in history textbooks and in many rather traditional history courses. The growth of an industrial working class, the use of

child labor, and the emergence of unions are familiar topics. However, other equally important aspects of social change are passed over with virtually no notice at all. As Herbert Guttman (1973) has pointed out, whole patterns of social interaction, attitudes, and values concerning work were being altered by the new industrial system. Yet labor historians have been far more concerned with the history of labor unions than with the impact of industrial discipline upon the worker, his perception of work, and his social relationships at work. While the growth of unions was important, the latter was no less so and may have more inherent interest to students.

Overview of the Lesson

This lesson explores some of these other dimensions of social change. While the materials included here can be used in several ways, they are presented as the basis for a six-day role-playing exercise. The format can be altered as the teacher sees fit. The lesson's major objective is to examine some of the social changes that had already taken place in the North. Questions about these changes are being raised here by a Southern legislative committee sometime during the 1880s. Thus the unit bridges two traditional content areas: industrialization in the North and the emergence of a business- and industrial-oriented New South following the Civil War.

The inquiry approach used in this unit is a moderately structured one. At the beginning of the unit the teacher is actively involved, introducing the role-playing exercise and providing the necessary historical information for background. However, once role playing is underway, the teacher is little more than an observer. The students should be interacting spontaneously. The teacher will become involved again at the end of the unit, providing structure for the debriefing session.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

The student will:

1) know that industrialization in the United States altered the nature and meaning of work.

2) know that industrialization changed social relationships.

3) know that 19th century Americans had differing points of view about the benefits of industrialization.

Skill Development

The student will:

1) gather data using classroom and other resources.

2) synthesize data through the development of a role identity.

Affect

The student will:

1) develop an empathetic understanding of the effect of machine production on the satisfaction workers derive from work.

2) develop an empathetic understanding of changes in work-related social relationships.

3) re-examine personal values and attitudes about economic growth and change.

Sample Lesson

The class is to be instructed at the outset that each student is expected to develop an identity of a 19th-century American who has both a reasoned point of view about the social benefits and disadvantages of industrialization and feelings and sensitivities that will be affected by the changes involved. They should be informed that their work will be evaluated on the basis of how fully and persuasively this identity is developed. Before the role playing begins, the teacher should reproduce a set of the accompanying documents for each student in the class.

The suggested six-day time schedule is probably the minimum amount of time that should be used for the unit. A teacher may wish to expand the lesson somewhat by adding a day for the gathering of evidence prior to the presentations before the committee. It may also be helpful to give the committee members an extra day to develop and discuss alternative courses of action.

00020

Day One

After explaining that each student will be responsible for developing a role and how this will be evaluated, the teacher should introduce the historical situation that will be simulated in the classroom during the course of the unit. This should include some general background on the economic condition of the post-Civil War South--its predominantly rural, agrarian economy and its reliance either upon local, handicraft producers or upon imports from the more industrialized North for manufactured goods. During the course of this discussion the teacher should hand out Henry Grady's statement (Document One) about the industrial backwardness of the South. It illustrates the major point to be made here.

After the statement by Grady has been discussed, the teacher should introduce the role-playing situation by explaining that, for the next several days, the class is to imagine that it is meeting in the committee room of a Southern state legislature's Committee on Manufactures. The task of the committee is to consider legislation it might recommend to encourage or discourage manufacturing in the state. That it might want to discourage industrial growth may seem incongruous after the discussion of the Grady quote. The teacher should raise the question whether Grady's position would have been a reasonable alternative, considering some of the social consequences of industrialization. In what respects would industrialization not be beneficial? How would the growth of manufacturing affect Southern society? To what extent would a person's role and place in society influence his attitude toward industrial development?

Finally, the teacher should ask the students to choose the roles they will assume for the duration of the unit. Five students should act as members of the Committee on Manufactures and should decide what kind of constituency each is representing as a legislator. They should play the roles of such legislators. They should choose one student as chairman of the committee to preside over the meetings. The teacher should remain silent, if possible, and do systematic observation in preparation for the debriefing exercise. The remainder of the class can develop identities either as (1) Northern men, women, or children who are appearing before the committee as expert witnesses or (2) Southern people who have not yet been greatly affected by economic change but who are anticipating it.

With the assistance of the students, the teacher should develop a list of possible roles and write it on the board. Some possibilities would be:

Unskilled laborers

cotton field hand
dock worker
housekeeper

Semi-skilled workers

machinist
textile mill worker
other factory workers

Skilled workers

blacksmith
shoe maker
tailor
harness maker
carpenter

Professionals

lawyer
teacher
doctor
clergyman

Business

banker
storeowner
machine shop owner
small manufacturer

Agricultural

farmer
share cropper

Days Two-Four

At the beginning of the second period the teacher should make available the remaining materials (Documents Two through Seven). These are to be considered the written testimony of witnesses who were unable to attend the committee hearing in person. While the hearing is in progress, the five committee members should distribute these materials and initiate a discussion of them. This provides an opportunity for the class to consider the views of some 19th-century Americans and to clarify the roles which they themselves are assuming. The point should not be missed that the social consequences of industrialization were viewed differently depending upon the person's social position, role, and perspective.

On the third and fourth days the committee should hear testimony of the witnesses present in the classroom. Those students who wish to report orally from the perspective of the role they are playing should do so. The other students will be considered interested spectators, who will submit their reports later in written form.

Day Five

On the fifth day of the lesson, the five-member committee will decide upon its course of action. To focus their discussion, the teacher can

list on the board some possible alternatives and solicit others from the class. For example, the Committee on Manufactures might recommend to the legislature that it:

1) provide a state subsidy to manufacturing companies choosing to locate in the state.
2) launch a "sell the state" campaign, advertising the advantages to companies locating there.
3) enact legislation regulating working conditions.
4) try to discourage manufacturing by placing heavy taxation on industrial property.
5) prohibit manufacturing establishments that employ more than ten persons.

Each committee member will explain the policy he prefers, given how he perceives the social consequences of this action for his constituents. Finally, the committee will vote upon one or more recommendations.

Day Six

It is essential that some time be spent debriefing the role-playing exercise. The students will need to assess the action of the committee members of the previous day. This could lead to a discussion of the importance of political decision making within the process of economic and social change. This period will also give the class the opportunity to arrive at some conclusions about the social consequences of industrialization. They should be encouraged to consider the consequences it has had for present-day society and the effect of technological change and economic growth on their own lives. Finally, the teacher may profitably direct the discussion toward the students' values and attitudes regarding social change.

Evaluation

The students should be evaluated on the basis of how fully and persuasively they have developed their role identities. While imagination will necessarily play a part in this, the roles must also be historically faithful. The students have the option of presenting their role identities either through an oral presentation during the legislative committee's hearings or as a written report. Each of the five committee members should

be evaluated primarily upon his or her justification for the policy alternative he or she selects on the fifth day of the lesson.

Other Uses of This Approach

A great variety of social history content can be incorporated into an American history course. The ethnic group composition of American society and the persistence of ethnic group loyalty is an important aspect of social structure. It is a useful vehicle for examining value conflicts and political behavior as well as for developing and testing hypotheses about cultural pluralism in the United States. Sets of social relationships other than the one presented here can be profitably examined, including those between men and women, ethnic and racial groups, and social classes. Occupational and geographic mobility lend themselves especially well to local and family history investigations. The function of educational and political institutions as socializing agents can help to place schools and political organizations in a new and interesting perspective. The possibilities are limited only by a teacher's imagination and the availability of resources.

Several publishers have produced individual volumes and series of collected primary source materials that are useful resources for teaching social history. One of the best is the ten-volume *The American People* series (Axtell 1973-74). Its individual volumes cover such topics as *The Native American People of the East*, *The American People in the Antebellum South*, and *The American People in the Age of Kennedy*. The primary materials within each volume are organized according to stages of life: birth and infancy, childhood and youth, love and marriage, aging and dying. The *Documents in American Civilization* series (Cohen and Hennig 1967-70) is also useful. It includes titles such as Carl Bode, ed., *American Life in the 1840's*, and Henry Nash Smith, ed., *Popular Culture and Industrialism: 1865-1890*. Documents that reflect social change can also be found in several of the volumes in the *Life in America* series (1972); *Eyewitness Accounts of American History* series (1959-74); *Documentary History of the United States* (1968-74); and *The American Culture* series (1970-73). These are basic resources that should be available in the school's resource center.

00024

Several individual volumes with interesting social history material are worth noting. Greenberg's *Land That Our Fathers Plowed* (1969) contains accounts of rural life and change. Several source books exist for the Black experience, especially Meltzer's *In Their Own Words* (1964-67) and Bracey, Meier, and Rudwick's *The Afro-Americans* (1972). Hofstadter and Wallace's *American Violence* (1970), Garraty's *Labor and Capital in the Gilded Age* (1968), and Lynd and Lynd's *Middletown* (1929) are important for materials on urban society. The Lynds' study of Middletown, while not a document collection, is rich in social history material.

00025

References

Axtell, James, ed. *The American People*, 10 vols. West Haven, CN: Pendulum, 1973-74.

Bracey, John H., Jr., August Meier, and Elliott Rudwick, eds. *The Afro-Americans: Selected Documents*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1972.

Cochran, Thomas. "The Presidential Synthesis in American History." *American Historical Review*, 53:4 (July 1948) pp. 748-759.

Cohen, Hennig, and Ward, John W., eds. *Documents in American Civilization*, 5 vols. Garden City, NY: Anchor Books, Doubleday, 1967-70.

Garraty, John A., ed. *Labor and Capital in the Gilded Age*. Boston MA: Little, Brown, 1968.

Grady, Henry Woodfin. *The New South: Writings and Speeches of Henry Grady*. Savannah, GA: Beehive Press, 1971.

Greenberg, David, ed. *Land That Our Fathers Plowed: The Settlement of Our Country as Told by the Pioneers Themselves and Their Contempories*. Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1969.

Guttman, Herbert. "Work, Culture, and Society in Industrializing America, 1815-1919." *American Historical Review*, 78:3 (June 1973) pp. 531-588.

Hareven, Tamara K., ed. *Anonymous Americans: Explorations in Nineteenth-Century Social History*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Hays, Samuel P. "A Systematic Social History." In *American History: Retrospect and Prospect*, George A. Billias and Gerald N. Grob, eds. New York, NY: Free Press, 1971, pp. 315-366.

Hofstadter, Richard, and Michael Wallace, eds. *American Violence: A Documentary History*. New York, NY: Knopf, 1970.

Lankford, John, and David Reimers, eds. *Essays on American Social History*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Lemisch, Jesse. "The American Revolution Seen from the Botton Up." In *Towards a New Past: Dissenting Essays in American History*, Barton J. Bernstein, ed. New York, NY: Pantheon Books, 1968, pp. 3-45.

Lynd, Robert S., and Helen M. Lynd. *Middletown: A Study in Contemporary American Culture*. New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace, 1929.

Meltzer, Milton, ed. *In Their Own Words: A History of the American Negro*. 3 vols. New York, NY: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1964-67.

Robinson, James Harvey. *The New History: Essays Illustrating the Modern Historical Outlook*. New York, NY: Free Press, 1965.

Schlesinger, Arthur M., Sr., and Dixon Ryan Fox, eds. *History of American Life*, 13 vols. New York, NY: Macmillan Co., 1927-48.

Smith, Henry Nash, ed. *Popular Culture and Industrialism, 1865-1890.* Garden City, NY: Anchor Books, 1967.

Thernstrom, Stephen. *Poverty and Progress: Social Mobility in a Nineteenth Century City.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1964.

Thernstrom, Stephen, and Richard Sennett, eds. *Nineteenth Century Cities: Essays in the New Urban History.* New Haven, CN: Yale University Press, 1969.

Wade, Richard C., ed. *Life in America,* 7 vols. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.

Eyewitness Accounts of American History, 14 vols. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1959-74.

Documentary History of the United States, 19 vols. New York, NY: Harper and Row, 1968-74.

The American Culture, 8 vols. New York, NY: George Braziller, 1970-73.

00027

Document One

Name: Henry Grady

Occupation: Editor, Atlanta *Constitution*, and spokesman for an industrial future for the south

Date: 1889

"A few years ago I told, in a speech, of a burial in Pickens county, Georgia. The grave was dug through solid marble, but the marble headstone came from Vermont. It was in a pine wilderness, but the pine coffin came from Cincinnati. An iron mountain overshadowed it, but the coffin nails and screws and the shovels came from Pittsburgh. With hard woods and metals abounding, the corpse was hauled on a wagon from South Bend, Indiana. A hickory grove grew near by, but the pick and shovel handles came from New York. The cotton shirt on the dead man came from Cincinnati, the coat and breaches from Chicago, the shoes from Boston; the folded hands were encased in white gloves from New York, and round the poor neck, that had worn all its living days the bondage of lost opportunity, was twisted a cheap cravat from Philadelphia. That country, so rich in undeveloped resources, furnished nothing for the funeral except the corpse and the hole in the ground, and would probably have imported both of those if it could have done so."

[Henry W. Grady. *The New South: Writings and Speeches of Henry Grady*. Savannah, GA: Beehive Press, 1971, pp. 121-22.]

Document Two

Name: Robert S. Howard
Occupation: Textile worker, secretary of local labor union
Date: 1883

"It is a constant race from morning to night after this machinery; and you may know as well as I can tell you, how a man must feel in this hot weather following such an occupation as that. He just feels no manhood about him. He can only take a glass of beer to stimulate him, to give him a little appetite so that he may eat, in order to be able to go through his daily drudgery. I have been there and I know it. From the time I was very young I was fond of reading, and I remember many occasions when I have gone to my supper and taken my daily paper and have fallen asleep with the paper in my hand, and have slept there until about eleven o'clock. Then I have been determined to read it, and have put my lamp beside me when I went to bed, and have gone to sleep again with the paper in my hand and lain there just as I put myself down, without stirring, until morning, the result of exhaustion.

"Now we can never expect advanced civilization among such a class of people until we get a reform of this miserable condition of affairs."

[John A. Garraty, ed. *Labor and Capital in the Gilded Age*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1968, p. 25.]

Document Three

Name: Samuel Gompers

Occupation: Skilled craftsman (cigar maker), labor organizer, and soon to be first president of the American Federation of Labor

Date: 1883

"Yes, sir. They find that employers are no longer--when I speak of employers I speak of them generally--that they are no longer upon the same footing with them that they were on formerly. They find that where a man who may have worked at the bench with them employs one or two hands they and he may have full social intercourse together, but as that man increases his business and employs a larger number of hands they find that his position has been removed so far above that of his old friends that they meet no more socially. Probably they may meet occasionally in the factory, when there will be a passing remark of 'Good morning' or 'Good day'; and then, after a while, the employer fails to see the employees at all; the superintendent does all the business and the employer does not bother himself any more about the men. That is how the position of the two has been changed since both were workingmen at the bench. The difference is considerably greater when the employer and the employee did not know each other before.... In most such instances the employees are not known as men at all but are known by numbers--'1', '2', '3', '4', and so on..."

[John A. Garraty, ed. *Labor and Capital in the Gilded Age.* Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1968, p. 18.]

Document Four

Name: R. Heber Newton
Occupation: Episcopal clergyman and social reformer
Date: 1883

"The whole condition of industrial labor has changed in our century. Contrast the state of such labor a century ago with what it is now. Then the handicraftsman worked in his own home, surrounded by his family, upon a task, all the processes of which he had mastered, giving him thus a sense of interest and pride in the work being well and thoroughly done. Now he leaves his home early and returns to it late, working during the day in a huge factory with several hundred other men. The subdivision of labor gives him now only a bit of the whole process to do, where the work is still done by hand, whether it be the making of a shoe or of a piano. He cannot be master of a craft, but only master of a fragment of the craft. He cannot have the pleasure or pride of the old-time workmen, for he *makes* nothing. He sees no complete product of his skill growing into finished shape in his hands. What zest can there be in this bit of manhood? Steam machinery is slowly taking out of his hands even this fragment of intelligent work, and he is set at feeding and watching the great machine which has been endowed with the brains that once was in the human toiler."

[John A. Garraty, ed. *Labor and Capital in the Gilded Age.* Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1968, p. 37.]

00031

Document Five

Name: Carroll D. Wright
Occupation: Head of Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics
Date: 1883

"I am thoroughly satisfied that the factory has been a wonderful element in our civilization towards its advancement.... I know the feeling is that the factory system has more and more tended to degrade labor, because under that system thirty or forty years ago, as established in New England, we employed only American girls from our farm houses, while now we see an entirely different class in our factories; but I fail to find that the class who used to be in factories have gone down; they have stepped up into school teaching, telegraphy, and the higher branches of labor, while their places have been filled by a class that have come up from a lower occupation.... By the factory we are constantly opening wider the field of advancement for that class of people who unfortunately stand on the lower round of the industrial ladder--we are bringing them up closer."

[Henry Nash Smith, ed. *Popular Culture and Industrialism, 1865-1890.* New York, NY: Anchor, 1967, pp. 52-53.]

Document Six

Name: Robert H. Thurston
Occupation: Mechanical engineer
Date: 1880

"Looking back upon our past history, we have seen the growth of our cotton manufactures, from the small beginning of Samuel Slater, and his humble rivals in a New England village, grow, until to-day many mills of forty thousand spindles each have been built, and the hum of their machinery and the clatter of their shuttles make music in the ears of two hundred thousand thrifty and happy working people. From absolute dependence upon Great Britain, we have grown to independence, and now, more than ten millions of spindles, and nearly a quarter of a million looms in our thousand mills supply Canada, South America, and even China annually with millions of dollars worth of goods.

"Our associates have made this country the most prosperous and happy in the world."

[Henry Nash Smith, ed. *Popular Culture and Industrialism, 1865-1890*. New York, NY: Anchor, 1967, p. 27.]

Document Seven

Name: John Morrison
Occupation: Machinist in New York City machine shop
Date: 1883

Morrison:

"When I first went to learn the trade a machinist considered himself more than the average workingman; in fact he did not like to be called a workingman. He liked to be called a mechanic. Today he recognizes the fact that he is simply a laborer the same as the others. Ten years ago even he considered himself a little above the average workingman; he thought himself a mechanic, and felt he belonged in the middle class; but today he recognizes the fact that he is simply the same as any other ordinary laborer, no more and no less...."

Questioner:

"I am requesting to ask you this question: Dividing the public, as is commonly done, into upper, middle, and lower classes, to which class would you assign the average workingman of your trade at the time when you entered it, and to which class you would assign him now?"

Morrison:

"I now assign them to the lower class. At the time I entered the trade I should assign them as merely hanging on to the middle class; ready to drop out at any time."

[Henry Nash Smith, ed. *Popular Culture and Industrialism, 1865-1890*. New York, NY: Anchor, 1967, pp. 276-77.]

CHAPTER III

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES TO THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION: QUESTIONS OF CAUSATION AND MEANING

by

John Mears

Introduction

Fifteen years have now passed since C. Vann Woodward, speaking at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association in December 1959, suggested to a large audience of professional colleagues that future revisions in their views of the past might be so extensive as to justify describing the emerging era of historiography as "the age of reinterpretation." Given the revolutionary--indeed the catastrophic--nature of recent events, he argued, we desperately need to challenge our established assumptions and theories (Woodward 1960, pp. 2). During the past decade, historians have begun to respond to this challenge. In their search for more systematic and explicit ways of explaining the phenomena of the past, they have injected a growing ferment into their discipline. Not only have they demonstrated a serious interest in hitherto neglected cultures and civilizations, especially those of Asia and Africa, but they have developed new frameworks for research and teaching that have revealed previously unnoticed interrelationships between past events and stressed the inclusive, synthetic nature of historical studies. In the process, they have turned more and more to methods and concepts suggested by the work of social scientists. From colleagues in other disciplines, historians have appropriated concepts such as "relative deprivation" and "status inconsistency." At the same time, they have borrowed techniques that have allowed them to open up such novel areas of investigation as "psychohistory" and "cliometrics."

Advocates of interdisciplinary research and teaching have long proclaimed their approach to be a panacea for many of our academic ills, whether at the high school or college level. Yet actual performance in the classroom has seldom lived up to hopes and expectations, simply

00035

because innovative techniques are never easy to put into practice. Nonetheless, a teacher has much to gain from a carefully planned interdisciplinary approach that brings together the perspectives of all relevant disciplines around a given theme or issue. This is especially true when we try to comprehend a complex subject such as revolution. (For some suggestive comments in this regard, see Stone 1966.) In recent centuries revolutions have assumed a wide variety of forms, and each revolutionary explosion has displayed so many different facets that only a broad interdisciplinary approach can properly treat them all.

Teachers who want to devise wide-ranging classroom strategies on a particular revolutionary experience will find a large body of theoretical literature from which to draw ideas for their instructional units. Since 1960 social scientists have published numerous books and articles on this provocative subject. (Informative supplements to Lawrence Stone's evaluation of research in the social sciences can be found in Kramnick 1972 and Zagorin 1973.) The results of recent research are now beginning to be synthesized, especially by political scientists, and you should familiarize yourself with this literature before you attempt to teach the interdisciplinary unit outlined below or try to devise similar units of your own. (Hagopian 1974 provides a well-balanced, comprehensive synthesis of existing concepts and theories. Green 1974 offers a more compact introduction, while Leiden and Schmitt 1968 contains a readable summary with illuminating 20th-century case studies. Gurr 1970 and Johnson 1966 have become standard references. All of these volumes include extensive bibliographies. Friedrich 1966 and Calvert 1970 can also be read with profit. Paynton and Blackey 1971 is a handy reference, for it reproduces nearly a score of key journal articles and monographic excerpts.) You should always keep in mind the work of historians who have successfully employed an interdisciplinary approach. Good results are seldom obtained by a direct application of social science theories to traditional historical problems. Historians have been most successful in this field when they have, in the words of H. Stuart Hughes 1960, permitted their "thought to be informed" by social science concepts, or when they have allowed those concepts to guide them toward new ways of examining old questions. A stimulating example can be found in Robert C. Tucker's recent biography of Stalin

(Tucker 1973). He has employed an immense body of detailed testimony about Stalin's life together with the formulations of such pioneers of psychological theory as Eric Erikson to analyze the dictator's political personality and motivations.

Overview of the Lesson

The ten-day unit suggested here is not in any sense exhaustive. It is designed to offer an illustration of how insights and techniques drawn from other disciplines might be employed in the context of historical studies. It explores four basic questions: What is the essential nature of a revolution? What are the conditions that tend to produce a revolutionary explosion? What, specifically, is the causal pattern of the American Revolution? and, How revolutionary was the American Revolution? These issues have been chosen because they have all been objects of ongoing scholarly debate, because they lend themselves readily to meaningful interdisciplinary approaches, because they can be incorporated into standard high school history courses without undue difficulty, and because they easily provoke fruitful discussion even among students who have limited knowledge of the American or any other revolutionary experience. Of course, the exercises presented in the following pages do not encompass every ramification of these topics. Nor do they treat all of the aspects of the American Revolution that might be dealt with from a social science perspective; such themes include the role of ideology, the characteristics of revolutionary leadership, and the impact of the crowd. (Other possibilities can be derived from a reading of Norling 1970. Chapter IV has a provocative title, "Are Revolutions Worth Their Price?") You might also want to consider approaching such topics from the perspective of the humanities, in which Nye(1960) can provide a good starting point.

Class opinion surveys, full-class discussion, reading, essay-writing, and possibly some teacher mini-lecutures are the techniques employed in this lesson. The inquiry approach used is rather tightly structured. At least the initial questions that give direction to each day's activities should be posed by the teacher. The teacher should also play an active role in helping the students clarify their ideas about revolution. Considerable direction from the teacher will probably

also be necessary during the class's examination of the possibilities and limitations of the principal social science concepts and theories involved. Sufficient structure during the first six days of the unit should ensure more fruitful class discussions and individual student contributions during the more open-ended concluding days of the unit.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

The student will:

1) understand the basic nature and causes of revolutionary explosions.
2) know the historical process that led to the American Revolution.
3) grasp the fundamental character of the American Revolution as well as its long-term consequences.

Skill Development

The student will:

1) formulate explanatory hypotheses about major historical problems (in this case, the nature, causes, and meaning of the American Revolution) with the aid of social science concepts and models.
2) test and evaluate tentative hypotheses through gathering and analyzing relevant evidence.
3) formulate and defend personal conclusions about major historical problems.

Affect

The student will:

1) re-examine and clarify personal attitudes and values related directly to the general phenomenon of revolution and to the American Revolution in particular.
2) empathize with the problems and needs of the British as well as the rebellious colonists.
3) re-evaluate personal attitudes toward contemporary political and social issues in light of an enhanced understanding of the American revolutionary experience.

Sample Lesson

This lesson is designed for use over a period of approximately ten class periods and provides resources that blend the contributions of

historians with those of social scientists. You will probably want to reproduce classroom quantities of all four documents at one time before you begin the lesson, although only Document One will be passed out the first day. Also, you will probably want to collect several of the references mentioned in the lesson and have them available in the classroom or library for students to use in writing their essays. Students will also need their regular American history textbooks for basic information on the American Revolution.

Day One

On the first day, give copies of Document One to your students. It is a description of revolution written by an historian on the basis of what he has learned from his students about their fundamental preconceptions. All the statements in the paragraph are regarded by experts as either incorrect or, at best, oversimplified. (For an analysis of the paragraph, see Gustavson 1955.) Without providing this information, ask your students to consider each assertion in turn, writing on a separate sheet of paper whether they regard it as "largely true" or "largely false." Explain to the students that this is not a test, but simply a means of helping them to examine their assumptions and attitudes about revolution. When the students are finished, collect the answer sheets (they will be used again on the last day of the lesson).

At this point you might try to stimulate discussion about the nature of revolution by taking an informal poll of the class and writing the totals of student responses to Gustavson's paragraph on the blackboard. Ask individuals to explain why they consider a given proposition to be "largely true" or "largely false." As you probe more deeply into their preconceptions about revolution, you can introduce new assertions into the conversation. For example, you might want to find out how your students would respond to the notion that "in a revolution, the typical leader can usually be described as an embittered failure or bloodthirsty lunatic." Whatever their reactions, you should use this initial exercise only to raise questions and not to point the class toward final conclusions.

Day Two

Devote the second day to the problem of defining a revolution. You might begin simply by asking your students to summarize their own thoughts. You will probably discover that they have a very hazy conception of revolution and will tend to use the word rather loosely. As they gradually piece together a working definition, write the key ideas on the blackboard. They may want to eliminate some initial suggestions and add others as their definition unfolds.

After the class has arrived at what it considers to be a satisfactory definition, pass out Document Two. It contains various definitions put forth by political scientists. (For your own background, you may want to read the explanations of these definitions in the works of the various authors.) Ask the class to compare these definitions with the one on the blackboard. Be sure that every student understands the meaning of all the terms involved. Have the class focus its attention on the differences among the various definitions. Ask them to explain why such differences exist and what common denominators they can discern. The class should use these social science definitions to test--and if necessary modify--their own. The exercise will help your students to grasp the complexity of revolutionary explosions and to realize that even the experts cannot fully agree on what is involved in a revolutionary situation.

Day Three

Classroom activities for the third day are built around Document Three, which directs students to the question of revolutionary causation through a consideration of James C. Davies' J-curve hypothesis. (For a relatively simple framework of analysis devised by an historian, see Gottschalk 1944.) Begin by giving Document Three to the class, allowing ample time for the students to read the explanation of the J-curve concept. Discuss the concept thoroughly, making certain that everyone understands the historical process that Davies is trying to describe. (Again you may wish to do some special reading on his ideas in preparation for classroom discussion. See Davies 1962 and 1967.) It might be helpful to illustrate the J-curve with one or more of the case studies employed by Davies himself.

Remember that he regards the theory as psychological rather than sociological or economic in nature, even though he has only been able to provide economic data to support it. (Helpful evaluations of the J-curve concept are contained in Stone 1966, pp. 171-72 and Kramnick 1972, pp.41.)

Davies' model has been selected because it is relatively easy to grasp. Other social scientists have recently attempted to refine the J-curve hypothesis, but their theories involve difficult social science concepts that may be inappropriate for your classroom. (See, for example, Geschwender 1968 and Tanter and Midlarsky 1967.) You may nonetheless want to keep their conclusions in mind when you lead class discussions on the J-curve. Whatever its limitations, the J-curve does prevent students from making a universal link between abject poverty and the outbreak of revolution. Be sure to call their attention to the social status of such founding fathers as George Washington as well as the prominent role that thriving Boston merchants and large landholders from tidewater Virginia played in the break with England. Revolutionaries often come from relatively prosperous and socially mobile segments of the population, and Davies' J-curve offers one possible explanation of why this is so.

Days Four Through Six

Plan to devote days four through six to an analysis of the causes of the American Revolution. Your students should first read relevant sections of whatever textbook you happen to be using. Supplementary reading might be assigned at this point. (A wide variety of supplementary readings are conveniently reproduced in Greene 1968, Berkhofer 1971, Hooker 1970, and Morris 1967. They all contain material that can be used to test the J-curve hypothesis. You should select supplementary readings appropriate to the abilities of your students and the time available for discussion. For an appraisal of recent theoretical literature and its possible application to the American experience, see Greene 1973.) Your students should try to view the conflict from the British as well as the American point of view. When you are satisfied that they have mastered the necessary information, ask them to analyze it within the framework of the J-curve. Davies (1962, p. 15) has made some brief

suggestions about how the J-curve applies to the background of the American Revolution. He points out that an extended period of economic expansion and political autonomy promoted rising expectations that were sharply thwarted by the largely economic regulations imposed upon the colonies by the British government after 1763. He also argues that resulting frustrations may have been exacerbated by a substantial decline in colonial trade with the mother country in 1772. Your class should try to determine what facts cannot be explained by the J-curve model as well as those that can. Davies himself (1967, p. 255) admits that his theory does not provide all of the answers about revolutionary causation and your class should be made aware of its limitations.

In applying the J-curve model to events preceding the Declaration of Independence, you will find that the exercise will aid your students in visualizing some of the complex patterns of revolutionary causation. They can use the J-curve to distinguish between those underlying circumstances that made the revolution possible (what experts have come to call "precipitants" or "accelerators"). The apogee of the J-curve usually coincides with the time when precipitants begin to activate preconditions. In the case of the American Revolution, this occurred around the close of the French and Indian War. Not only did the colonial economy experience a break in the war-induced boom, but the British immediately imposed the Proclamation Line of 1763 as well as the Stamp Act on the colonists. The end of the J-curve marks that period when certain "triggers"--specific events like the so-called "Intolerable Acts," the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord, the meetings of the First and Second Continental Congresses, and the Battle of Bunker Hill--actually set off the War of Independence.

The J-curve will also lead some of your students to re-examine the nature of British policies and the conditions under which the colonists lived. Many will then be able to comprehend why the colonists felt burdened and oppressed, even though they probably enjoyed more liberty and greater material well-being in an absolute sense than most peoples living in Europe at that time. What really mattered was how they perceived the situation. Their outlook was colored by a variety of frustrations and fears created in large measure by a J-curve pattern of events. The colonists honestly believed themselves mistreated. They felt that

00042

ever-tightening imperial controls would limit their opportunities for future improvement and that it would be necessary to take up arms to protect their freedoms. Such convictions obviously played an important role in the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. An understanding of how and why these convictions developed will affect the students' re-evaluation of the various statements in Document One.

Days Seven Through Nine

From days seven through nine, concentrate upon the impact and legacy of the American Revolution. Start by having your students read and discuss relevant textbook chapters and supplementary assignments. (In addition to the supplementary readings suggested for days four through six above, consult Palmer 1964.) When you are confident that they have absorbed the basic facts, give them Document Four, which contains statements by historians and social scientists about the essential nature of the American Revolution. Use these assertions to probe the question, How revolutionary was the American Revolution? (See, in particular, Wood 1966 and Billias 1965.) Perhaps your class can agree on which statement best describes the essence of our revolution. If not, explore the reasons why different individuals hold different views. Try to pinpoint the specific issues upon which a consensus cannot be reached and then have the class reflect upon the character of those issues. Is there anything about them that explains the lack of consensus?

On either the eighth or ninth day, give the class a writing assignment. Ask your students to compose an essay, explaining whether the events of the American Revolution substantiate or contract the general assertions about revolution contained in Document One. Instruct them to support their general arguments with specific evidence. This exercise will set the stage for discussion on the last day of the unit.

At the beginning of the last day, conduct a second opinion poll on the statements in Gustavson's paragraph. Compare the new results with the original reactions that you received on the first day. Have the class note any shifts in basic attitudes and ask individuals to explain why their views have changed. Their ideas about the American Revolution should be integrated into this discussion. Complete agreement on every

00043

point will probably still not be achieved, but this session can provide students with a final opportunity to clarify their thinking about the American Revolution.

Evaluation

Your evaluation of the student's work should be based upon a combination of their written essays and classroom participation. As you make your evaluations, keep the following questions in mind: How well did the students grasp the social science concepts and theories introduced through the resource supplements? How effectively did they use those concepts and theories to comprehend and analyze historical data? Did they conscientiously re-evaluate their attitudes toward the phenomenon of revolution in general and the American Revolution in particular? How well were they able to defend their own points of view? Were they able to marshal concrete evidence in support of their beliefs and conclusions? To what extent did they grasp the complexity of what they were studying and recognize the diversity of opinions about particular issues? Did they demonstrate an ability to interrelate their understanding of the American Revolution with their grasp of trends and developments in contemporary society? Remember that the study of history involves much more than the memorization of facts.

Other Uses of This Approach

You may want to use your experience with this unit as a basis for developing an interdisciplinary approach in other segments of your course. While the possibilities are limitless, it might be helpful to begin by applying the J-curve concept to a subject like the causes of the Civil War or the outbreak of ghetto riots in the 1960s. The J-curve may even be relevant to situations in which widespread violence or open rebellion did not occur, such as the Great Depression of the 1930s. A host of additional topics could lend themselves to interdisciplinary analysis of various kinds. Slavery as an economic and social institution, industrial growth in the Gilded Age, and the progressive urbanization of American society come readily to mind.

00044

References

Berkhofer, Robert F., Jr., ed. *The American Revolution: The Critical Issues*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1971.

Billias, George Athan, ed. *The American Revolution: How Revolutionary Was It?* New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Boorstin, Daniel J. *The Genius of American Politics*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Calvert, Peter. *Revolution*. New York, NY: Praeger, 1970.

Davies, James C. "The Circumstances and Causes of Revolution: A Review." *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 11:2 (June 1967) 247-257.

_____ "Toward a Theory of Revolution." *American Sociological Review*, 27:1 (February 1962) 5-19.

Forster, Robert, and Jack P. Greene, eds. *Preconditions of Revolution in Early Modern Europe*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press, 1970.

Friedrich, Carl J., ed. *Revolution*. New York, NY: Atherton, 1966.

Geschwender, James. "Explorations in the Theory of Social Movements and Revolutions." *Social Forces*, 47:2 (December 1968) 127-135.

Gottschalk, Louis. "Causes of Revolution." *American Journal of Sociology*, 50:1 (July 1944) 1-8.

Green, Thomas H. *Comparative Revolutionary Movements*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

Greene, Jack P., ed. *The Reinterpretation of the American Revolution*. New York, NY: Harper & Row, 1968.

Greene, Jack P. "The Social Origins of the American Revolution: An Evaluation and an Interpretation." *Political Science Quarterly*, 88:1 (March 1973) 1-22.

Gurr, Ted Robert. *Why Men Rebel*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1970.

Gustavson, Carl G. *A Preface to History*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, 1955.

Hagopian, Mark N. *The Phenomenon of Revolution*. New York, NY: Dodd, Mead, 1974.

Hooker, Richard J., ed. *The American Revolution: The Search for Meaning*. New York, NY: Wiley, 1970.

Hughes, H. Stuart. "The Historian and the Social Scientist." *American Historical Review*, 66:1 (October 1960) 20-46.

Johnson, Chalmers. *Revolutionary Change*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1966.

Kramnick, Isaac. "Reflections on Revolution: Definition and Explanation in Recent Scholarship." *History and Theory*, 11:1 (February 1972) 26-63.

Leiden, Carl, and Karl M. Schmitt. *The Politics of Violence: Revolution in the Modern World.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1968.

Morris, Richard B. *The American Revolution Reconsidered.* New York, NY: Harper & Row, 1967.

Neumann, Sigmund. "The International Civil War." *World Politics,* 1:3 (April 1949) 333-350.

Norling, Bernard. *Timeless Problems in History.* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1970.

Nye, R. B. *The Cultural Life of the New Nation.* New York, NY: Harper & Brothers, 1960.

Palmer, Robert R. *The Age of Democratic Revolution: A Political History of Europe and America, 1760-1800,* 2 vols. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1964.

_____ "The Revolution." In *The Comparative Approach to American History,* C. Vann Woodward, ed. New York, NY: Basic Books, 1968, 47-61.

Paynton, Clifford T., and Robert Blackey, eds. *Why Revolution? Theories and Analysis.* Cambridge, MA: Schenkman, 1971.

Stone, Lawrence. "Theories of Revolution." *World Politics,* 18:2 (January 1966) 159-176.

Tanter, Raymond, and Manus Midlarsky. "A Theory of Revolution." *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* 11:3 (September 1967) 264-280.

Tucker, Robert C. *Stalin as Revolutionary, 1879-1929.* New York, NY: W.W. Norton, 1973.

Wood, Gordon S. "Rhetoric and Reality in the American Revolution." *William and Mary Quarterly,* 23:1 (January 1966) 3-32.

Woodward, C. Vann. "The Age of Reinterpretation." *American Historical Review,* 66:1 (October 1960) 1-19.

Zagorin, Perez. "Theories of Revolution in Contemporary Historiography." *Political Science Quarterly,* 88:1 (March 1973) 23-52.

Document One

"A revolution is caused by the misery of the people. A strong and tyrannical government persists in its misrule until the people can endure it no longer. Then, moved by spontaneous zeal and righteous indignation, the multitudes rise. They assault the citadels of power and expel the ruling class in a bloody civil war. As a consequence of the revolution, liberty is restored to the people."

[Carl G. Gustavson. *A Preface to History*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, 1955, p. 98.]

Document Two

"Revolution is a sweeping, fundamental change in political organization, social structure, economic property control and the predominant myth of social order, thus indicating a major break in the continuity of development."

[Sigmund Neumann. "The International Civil War." *World Politics*, 1:3 (April 1949) 333-34.]

"Revolution is any sharp, sudden change or attempted change in the location of political power which involves either the use of the threat of violence and, if successful, expresses itself in the manifest and perhaps radical transformation of the process of government, the accepted foundation of sovereignty or legitimacy, and the conception of the political and/or social order."

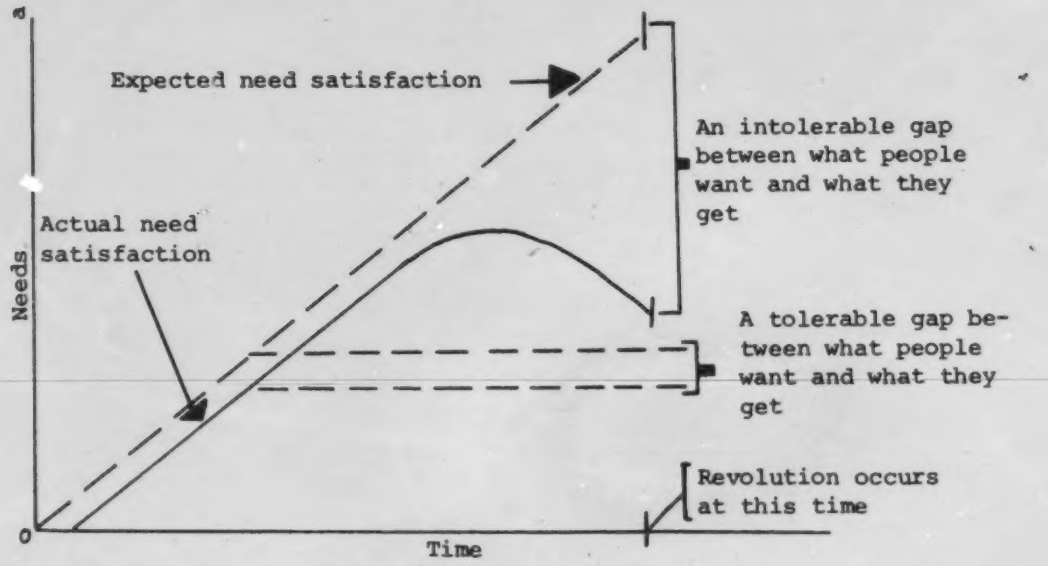
[Adapted from the definition of Eugene Kamenka by Robert Forster and Jack P. Greene, eds. *Preconditions of Revolution in Early Modern Europe*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press, 1970, p. 1.]

"A revolution is an acute, prolonged crisis in one or more of the traditional systems of stratification (class, status, power) of a political community, which involves a purposive, elite-directed attempt to abolish or to reconstruct one or more of said systems by means of an intensification of political power and recourse to violence."

[Mark N. Hagopian. *The Phenomenon of Revolution*. New York, NY: Dodd, Mead, 1974, p. 1.]

Document Three

James C. Davies' "J-curve" Hypothesis


Expected need satisfaction
An intolerable gap between what people want and what they get
Actual need satisfaction
Needs
A tolerable gap between what people want and what they get
Revolution occurs at this time
0
Time

According to Davies, "Revolutions are most likely to occur when a prolonged period of objective economic and social development is followed by a short period of sharp reversal. The all-important effect on the minds of people in a particular society is to produce, during the former period, an expectation of continued ability to satisfy needs--which continue to rise--and, during the latter, a mental state of anxiety and frustration when manifest reality breaks away from anticipated reality. The actual state of socioeconomic development is less significant than the expectation that past progress, now blocked, can and must continue in the future."

[James C. Davies. "Toward a Theory of Revolution." *American Sociological Review*, 27:1 (February 1962) 6-7.]

In commenting on the resulting "J-curve" pattern, Mark N. Hagopian has written: "Constant misery is no more or less conductive to revolutionary behavior than is constant improvements of conditions. It is rather the sudden gap between expectations and reality produced by cyclic downturn that dissipates confidence in the existing regime....

Davies thus envisages a point where the anxiety and fear produced by sudden reversal of the improving trend becomes intolerable and the ensuing frustration makes the government a scapegoat. Whether it is in fact responsible for society's recent woes is not particularly important; what is important is that it is considered so responsible."

[Mark N. Hagopian. *The Phenomenon of Revolution.* New York, NY: Dodd, Mead, 1974, pp. 151-52.]

Document Four

"It is true that the French Revolution was a traumatic experience, which the American Revolution was not. Some have even argued that the American Revolution was no revolution at all because it did not seriously disrupt the fabric of society; it made no radical alterations in the ruling elite; it instituted no terror and produced no charisma."

[Carl Leiden and Karl M. Schmitt. *The Politics of Violence: Revolution in the Modern World.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1968, pp. 10-11.]

"There is another category of revolutions, those aiming at national independence, in which the American Revolution is seen as a precedent, since, whatever else it may also have been, it was clearly a struggle for independence against Great Britain.... The war of independence was at the same time a civil or revolutionary struggle between native Americans.... Americans set up new governments according to new principles, and to a large extent operated by new men, of a kind who could not have achieved prominence had the colonies remained British.... In short, the revolt in America meets the external criteria of a true revolution, and a revolution in a democratic direction, since it was a former upper or 'aristocratic' class that was displaced."

[Robert R. Palmer. "The Revolution." In *The Comparative Approach to American History*, C. Vann Woodward, ed. New York, NY: Basic Books, 1968, pp. 49, 51.]

"The most obvious peculiarity of our American Revolution is that, in the modern European sense of the word, it was hardly a revolution at all."

[Daniel J. Boorstin. *The Genius of American Politics.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1953, p. 68.]

"The American Revolution, (J. Franklin) Jameson argued, substantially reduced the prominence, role, and wealth of the colonial upper classes and accelerated the rise of a middle-class gentry which greatly

benefited from the confiscation of Tory estates, the emigration to Canada of British Loyalists, the removal of the Crown's restrictions on land colonization, and the abolition of primogeniture."

[Thomas H. Green. *Comparative Revolutionary Movements.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1974, p. 7.]

"The American Civil War was also a revolution in many ways--much more so indeed in its effects than was the revolution declared in 1776."

[Carl Leiden and Karl M. Schmitt. *The Politics of Violence: Revolution in the Modern World.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1968, p. 13.]

00052

CHAPTER IV

COMPARATIVE HISTORY:
SLAVERY IN CUBA, BRAZIL, AND THE UNITED STATES

by

Glenn Linden

Introduction

> To limit the subject of historical study within national boundaries is always to invite the charge of narrow perspective and historical nationalism. Historians of all nations have in some measure incurred that risk, but Americans have been accused of more than the normal share of this type of parochialism. (Woodward 1968, p. 3)

Often they have made claims of distinctiveness and uniqueness about the American experience that are unsupported by historical evidence. And too often, they have assumed that the United States developed independently of most of the historical forces that shaped Western Europe and the Americas.

While this has been true of many writers and teachers of American history in the past, in recent years a strong countercurrent stressing the comparability of American history has asserted itself. Daniel Boorstin's study of American history has been enriched by his knowledge of European history and he has constantly made references to their similarities and differences (Boorstin 1960). Louis Hartz (1964) has made comparative history the basis of his analysis of American life and asked "how can we have the uniqueness of anything except by contrasting it with what is not unique." Similarly, the works of Robert R. Palmer (1959), David Potter (1954), and Eric McKitrick (1960) have benefited from efforts to think in a more comparative manner. The words of the French Medieval historian, Henri Pirenne, sum up the feeling of these and many other historians who are working in comparative history: "The comparative method permits history to appear in its true perspective"

00053

Many teachers have begun to experiment with the comparative method. They have recognized that this method is useful, easily manageable, and able to produce positive results. And they have seen a sense of proportion and historical perspective appear as events of American history are viewed in a larger context.

A first step for many teachers in the use of comparative history has been to select an area and identify the phenomena that are to be compared. This is usually followed by collecting of relevant materials, noting similarities and differences, and answering questions about origin and evolution. Sometimes the units of comparison are societies far removed from one another in time and space. In these societies it is difficult to find mutual influences or common origins. On other occasions the units of comparison are geographical neighbors and historical contemporaries, regularly influenced by each other. Often they are subject to the same overall influences because they are so close in space and time. The latter method may arrive at more precise conclusions and its classifications can be more rigorous and critical.

The following unit attempts to provide materials concerning slavery in three societies that were geographical neighbors and historical contemporaries--Cuba, Brazil, and the United States in the 19th century. These materials can be incorporated into existing teaching units on the pre-Civil War period in American history with a minimum of effort. Settlement of the three societies began in the 16th and early 17th centuries. Since labor was expensive and scarce, slavery developed as a way of providing a reliable work force. Early efforts to use Indian labor proved unsuccessful and soon large numbers of African Blacks were being brought to the New World.

The history of the slave plantation systems of Cuba and Brazil is to a great extent the history of large-scale sugar production. Two-thirds of all slaves brought to the new world were brought to produce sugar. Slave labor was also used to produce a few important staple crops. By the early part of the 19th century there had been some changes in agricultural patterns--coffee had become an important crop in Brazil, tobacco had given way to cotton in the southern United States, and Cuba had developed a sizable urban slave propulation in addition to that involved

in sugar production.

By the early 19th century, however, there were many challenges to the existing slavery systems. To some, slavery was basically immoral since it denied freedom and dignity to fellow human beings. To others, it seemed that slavery had a corrosive effect on the quality of life in the broader society. However, most thought slavery was an archaic economic system that was no longer profitable. These challenges were to culminate in the peaceful ending of slavery in Cuba and Brazil and its forceful termination by a civil war in the United States.

Until recently, there has been little comparative information available on the slavery systems in these societies. However, beginning with the work of several historians in the 1940s and 1950s, a clearer picture has begun to emerge. The first work of a comparative nature was by Frank Tannenbaum (1946). In it he pictured African slavery in Latin America as a mild institution and attributed its mildness to the experience of the Spanish and Portuguese with slavery on the Iberian peninsula. This thesis was developed further by Stanley Elkins (1959), who emphasized the power of the institutions of church and state in humanizing the Latin American slave system. Later Herbert Klein (1967) expanded this view in his comparative study of Cuba and Virginia, in which he argued that slavery was mild and humane in Cuba but harsh and brutal in Virginia.

In the 1960s, however, a number of historians began to question this view of slavery. In a comprehensive study of slavery in the western world, David Davis (1966) concluded that there was no substantial evidence to prove that the treatment of slaves was better in Latin America than in the United States. An examination of slavery in Brazil by Charles Boxer (1962) resulted in his discovery of a large number of instances of cruelty toward slaves. These included cutting the tendons of slaves to prevent their escape and using slaves as prostitutes in the urban areas. Further work by Stanley Stein (1957) on Brazil and Gwendolyn Hall (1971) on Cuba and Haiti added evidence to the view that slavery was much harsher than earlier portrayed. Stein described the brutal punishment on the coffee plantations in Brazil, while Hall focused on methods of social control in the Caribbean, where the average slave workday was 18 to 20 hours.

At present there are two major schools of thought about slavery in the Americas. One sees it as humane and reasonable in Latin America but severe and brutal in the United States. The other sees it as a cruel system in both North and South America, but more severe in parts of Latin America where sugar and coffee plantations existed. Since it is doubtful that substantial agreement will be reached in the near future, the debate will continue until more conclusive evidence is available.

Overview of the Lesson

The following lesson employes historical documents from both schools of thought on slavery. The first three days of the eight-day lesson are based on the view that slavery was a cruel institution in both North and South America. On the fourth day, documents representing the more humane view of slavery are introduced, and students are later asked to search for additional sources of information.

Full-class and small-group discussion, individual research and essay-writing, and possibly some mini-lectures by the teacher are the techniques employed in this lesson. The inquiry approach used is moderately structured. The initial questions posed by the teacher are rather general and the students are to be given a great deal of latitude in their answers. It is not the "correctness" of the answer that is important, but the students' thoughtful justification for it. Thereafter the teacher's role is more that of a classroom resource person than that of discussion director. The directions of the classroom discussions will largely be determined by the students themselves. In addition to a resource person, the teacher should also serve as a probing critic, pushing the students to support their conclusions with sufficient evidence.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

The student will:

1) understand the similarities and differences in slavery in Cuba, Brazil, and the United States.

2) formulate hypotheses and generalizations that account for these similarities and differences.

Skill Development

The student will:

1) find evidence regarding slave life in the three societies.

2) analyze and evaluate historical evidence in a manner consistence with accepted historical methods

Affect

The student will:

1) participate with others in the inquiry process.

2) empathize with the problems of slaves, free Blacks, and whites in the three societies.

Sample Lesson

This lesson plan describes an eight-day sequence of activities, which you may wish to lengthen or shorten, depending on the capabilities and interests of your students. Before you introduce the lesson, be sure that you have made enough copies of the first three student handouts (Documents One, Two, and Three) for distribution to each student the first day. (Documents Four, Five, and Six might also be reproduced at the same time, though they will not be used until the fourth day of the lesson.) You may want to obtain copies of some of the books cited in the student handouts, as well as other sources mentioned in the References for this chapter, to have on hand in the classroom for the students to use when they develop their essays on the fifth through seventh days of class.

Day One

Explain to the students that they will be studying the institution of slavery for about eight days. Hand out Documents One, Two, and Three; divide the class into three groups; and select a leader for each group. Ask each group to read all three documents and decide: what geographical area and time period is referred to in each document, whether the documents are reliable as historical evidence, and how representative of each society are the conditions described. They will find evidence in each account providing at least tentative answers to these questions. Urge them to read these accounts carefully.

00037

Explain that each group member should feel free to express his or her own point of view. The important thing is not the final answer but that each has good reasons for the answer. These first three documents emphasize the cruelty and severity of slave systems in the three societies. (The documents to be used later will present a much different picture.) There should be some disagreement in each group over the reliability and representativeness of each account. If not, the teacher should raise critical questions. Document One presents a severe picture of life on a sugar plantation. Is it too extreme? Is it really possible that slaves were made to work 18 to 20 hours a day? Students will note that the document relates to Cuba in the 1840s. Document Two describes slightly less severe conditions, but the emphasis is upon supervision and control. Clues to location are the reference to coffee plantations and Portuguese drivers. It is Brazil in the mid-19th century. Document Three presents a severe picture of slave trading in the winter in the Old South. It is an account given by a former slave, Will Bost. Questions that may occur include, How characteristic was slave trading? Were slaves usually chained together? The reference to Newton is a clue to the state of North Carolina. It is in the 1850s.

Days Two Through Four

The students will need to spend at least one day and possibly longer in their groups. When they are ready, ask the group leaders to report the groups' answers to the class. Write them on the board. See if there is agreement among groups. Ask for reasons and evidence. A lengthy discussion should follow. Then ask students what differences they saw between the accounts and how they would explain these differences. They will need to think of the differences in the development of the three societies.

At this point, a brief discussion of comparative history is needed. Talk with the class about differences of development in Cuba, Brazil, and the United States. Stress the Spanish influence in Cuba, the Portuguese on Brazil, and the English on the Old South. Other points could include religious differences, differences in crops, differences in African origins of the slaves, and differences in political controls from

Europe. (Books that you may want to read for background on differences include Klein 1967, Boxer 1962, Stampp 1956, and Phillips 1966.)

Now pass out Documents Four, Five, and Six. These documents present the gentler side of slavery and are at odds with the first three. Ask the students to read these new documents and, while they are doing so, think about the following: Imagine you are being brought to the Americas as a slave in the 1850s. Based on what you know from all six documents, to which of the three societies--Brazil, Cuba, or the U.S. South--would you prefer to be sent? Give the students the remainder of the period to read Documents Four, Five, and Six and ask them to be ready to make a decision at the beginning of the next period.

Days Five Through Seven

The next day, ask the students to choose the society in which they would prefer to be slaves. Then ask each to gather available information about his or her preferred society in order to determine what his or her life would be like. Each is to write a description of a day in his or her life as a slave, based on available data from resources in the classroom and library as well as on their imaginations. Wherever possible, include such items as job, family, food, and education.

It is important to emphasize the fact that there are no right answers to this exercise. Otherwise students may be uncomfortable with their descriptions when these differ from those of their fellow students. The important thing is the process not the product.

As students work, circulate among them and help them clarify their ideas. You may want to refer them to Harriet Beecher Stowes' *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1965) as the effort of one woman to picture the life of a slave. Other good references for students include William Styron's *The Confession of Nat Turner* (1967), Frederick Douglass' autobiography (1970), and Solomon Northrop's *Twelve Years as a Slave* (1968). Edwin Fenton's *Tradition and Change in Four Societies* (1974) includes a section on Brazilian slavery. It would also be useful for you to have copies of the books by Klein (1967), Boxer (1962), Stein (1957), and Hall (1971) for use in your room or the school library.

Students will be gathering information and writing their accounts for the next few days. They should study the documents carefully and add any information that is available elsewhere. It is important that the documents be closely examined since they contain much useful information.

Day Eight

After they have completed their work, ask a few students to describe their lives as slaves. Be certain that you have at least one from each society. Ask other class members who wrote essays on slave life in the same society if they agree with the descriptions presented. How realistic are they, both factually and emotionally? Ask students who wrote essays on slave life in the other societies whether, after hearing the reports on a different society, they still think the society they chose would be preferrable. What are the good aspects and bad aspects of slave life in each society compared with the others? A listing of differences and similarities on the chalkboard might be used to summarize the lesson.

(The lesson might be extended, if interest persists, by generating hypotheses about the implications of the differences and similarities for present-day life in the three societies.)

Evaluation

Each student's participation in full-class and small-group discussions as well as his or her essay can serve as the basis for evaluation. Full-class discussions provide the opportunity for the teacher to observe most students' abilities related to all the lesson objectives: to compare three societies, to form hypotheses and generalizations, to find and use evidence, to participate with others in the inquiry process, and to empathize with the problems of slaves and others. Small-group discussion may show especially the students' abilities to share in the inquiry process and to analyze historical documents. The essay should demonstrate students' abilities to find and use evidence and to empathize with the problems of slave life.

00060

Other Uses of This Approach

As mentioned earlier, there are many topics in American history that lend themselves to a comparative treatment. The American Revolution can be used as a springboard to a consideration of the nature of revolutions and the factors that lead to revolutions. A good source for this comparison is Robert R. Palmer's *Age of Democratic Revolutions* (1959). Another area for comparison is urbanization. In the 19th century, the U.S. went through a series of problems related to the growth of cities. Many other societies--European, Asian, and African--have had similar problems and it could be fruitful to examine the factors that led to U.S. urban growth and the similarities and differences between urbanization in the U.S. and other societies. Industrialization presents similar possibilities. Since France, Spain, Portugal, Denmark, and England were closely involved in exploration and colonization of the New World, a careful look at the different patterns and those nations' responses to similar problems can shed new light on this period. Also, the Westward Movement, Reconstruction, and reform movements offer other possibilities.

00061

References

Boorstin, Daniel. *America and the Image of Europe: Reflections on American Thought.* New York, NY: Meridian, 1960.

Boxer, C.R. *The Golden Age of Brazil.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 1962.

Davis, David B. *The Problem of Slavery in Western Culture.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1966.

Douglass, Frederick. *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, an American Slave, Written by Himself.* (Genevieve S. Gray, ed.) New York, NY: Grosset and Dunlop, 1970.

Elkins, Stanley M. *Slavery: A Problem in American Institutional and Intellectual Life.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1959.

Fenton, Edwin. *Tradition and Change in Four Societies: An Inquiry Approach.* New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.

Graham, Richard, ed. *A Century of Brazilian History since 1865.* New York, NY: Knopf, 1969.

Hall, Gwendolyn. *Social Control in Slave Plantation Societies: A Comparison of St. Domingue and Cuba.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press, 1971.

Hartz, Louis. "American Historiography and Comparative Analysis." In *Comparative Studies in Society and History,* 5:1 (July 1963) 365-377.

_____. *The Founding of New Societies: Studies in the History of the United States, Latin America, South Africa, Canada and Australia.* New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964.

Klein, Herbert S. *Slavery in the Americas: A Comparative Study of Virginia and Cuba.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1967.

McKitrick, Eric. *Andrew Johnson and Reconstruction.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

Northup, Solomon. *Twelve Years as a Slave.* (Sue Eakin and Joseph Logsdon, eds.) Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 1968.

Olmsted, Frederick L. *A Journey in the Seaboard Slave States.* New York, NY: Dix and Edwards, 1856.

Palmer, Robert R. *The Age of Democratic Revolution,* 2 vols. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1964.

Phillips, Ulrich B. *American Negro Slavery: A Survey of the Supply, Employment and Control of Negro Labor as Determined by the Plantation Regime.* Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 1966.

Pirenne, Henri. "What Historians Are Trying To Do." In *Methods in Social Science,* Stuart Rice, ed. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1931, 435-445.

Potter, David. *People of Plenty: Economic Abundance and the American Character.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Stampp, Kenneth. *The Peculiar Institution: Slavery in the Ante-bellum South.* New York, NY: Knopf, 1956.

Stein, Stanley J. "Negro Slavery in Brazil: Harsh and Cruel." In *A Century of Brazilian History since 1865,* Richard Graham, ed. New York, NY: Knopf, 1969, 62-67.

_____. *Vassouras: A Brazilian Coffee County, 1850-1900.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1957.

Stowe, Harriet Beecher. *Uncle Tom's Cabin.* New York, NY: Harper & Row, 1965.

Styron, William. *The Confessions of Nat Turner.* New York, NY: Random House, 1967.

Tannenbaum, Frank. *Slave and Citizen: The Negro in the Americas.* New York, NY: Vintage Books, 1946.

Williams, Mary W. "Negro Slavery in Brazil: Benevolent and Humane." In *A Century of Brazilian History since 1865,* Richard Graham, ed. New York, NY: Knopf, 1969, 56-61.

Woodward, C. Vann, ed. *The Comparative Approach to American History.* New York, NY: Basic Books, 1968.

Yetman, Norman R., ed. *Life under the "Peculiar Institution": Selections from the Slave Narrative Collection.* New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Document One

"The workday during the grinding season on sugar estates ... reached twenty hours. A traveler during the 1840s reported the incessant sound of the whip. 'Indeed, it was necessary to keep the poor wretches awake.' Toward the end of the grinding season, even the oxen were reduced to 'mere skeletons, many of them dying from over-labor; the negroes are allowed but five hours sleep.' Other reports indicate that four hours sleep was considered sufficient for a slave, and that twenty hours a day for five to seven months out of the year was the normal working day. Even on one well-run estate, which had a humane manager who had been with the family for thirty years, only three to four hours sleep was allowed during the grinding season. The manager explained apologetically that the work could not be carried on with less labor. When the manager of another estate was asked whether the slaves lives were shortened by lack of sleep during crop time, he repled 'without doubt (sin duda).' Keeping the slaves constantly occupied was also justified as a means of keeping them out of trouble. Cuban planters were amazed when informed of the amount of leisure that slaves in the United States enjoyed after their daily tasks were finished. They could not understand how the slaves remained disciplined with so much time on their hands."

[Gwendolyn Midlo Hall. *Social Control in Slave Plantation Societies: A Comparison of St. Domingue and Cuba.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press, 1971, pp. 17-18.]

Document Two

"Constant supervision and thorough control through discipline joined to swift, often brutal punishment were considered an absolute necessity on coffee plantations... On isolated fazendas amid numerous slaves, planters perceived the precariousness of their situation. Many declared openly 'The slave is our uncompromising enemy.' And the enemy had to be restrained and kept working on schedule through fear of punishment, by vigilance and discipline, by forcing him to sleep in locked quarters, by prohibiting communication with slaves of nearby fazendas, and by removing all arms from his possession...

Most visible symbol of the master's authority over the slave, the whips enjoyed several names: there was the literate term 'chicoti' for what was usually a five-tailed and metal-tipped lash, colloquially known as the 'codfish' or 'armadillo tail.' Probably because Portuguese drivers went armed with such cat-o'-nine-tails, slaves tagged it with the name of the favorite article of Portuguese diet--codfish . . . not sheer perversity but the desire to drive slaves to work longer and harder motivated liberal use of the lash."

[Stanley Stein. "Negro Slavery in Brazil: Harsh and Cruel." In *A Century of Brazilian History since 1865*, Richard Graham, ed. New York, NY: Knopf, 1969, pp. 62-64.]

Document Three

"I remember when I was a little boy, about ten years ago, the speculators come through Newton with droves of slaves. They always stay at our place. The poor critters nearly froze to death. They always come 'long on the last of December so that the niggers would be ready for sale on the first day of January. Many the time I see four or five of them chained together. They never had enough clothes on to keep a cat warm. The women never wore anything but a thin dress and a petticoat and one underwear. I've seen the ice balls hangin' on to the bottom of their dresses as they ran along, just like sheep in a pasture before they are sheared. They never wore any shoes. Just run along on the ground all spewed up with ice. The speculators always rode on horses and drove the poor niggers. When they get cold, they make 'em run till they are warm again....

"Us poor niggers never allowed to learn anything. All the readin' they ever hear was then they was carried through the big Bible. The massa say that keep the slaves in they places. They was one nigger boy in Newton who was terrible smart. He learn to read and write. He take other colored children out in the fields and teach em' about the bible, but they forget it before the next Sunday."

[Norman Yetman. *Life under the "Peculiar Institution": Selections from the Slave Narrative Collections*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970, pp. 35-36.]

Document Four

Employed in every conceivable industry and profession in the urban centers and heavily engaged in a multitude of rural activities from produce farming to cattle raising and bee keeping, the African negro slave lived in a rich world of economic opportunity. Wages for skilled labor were high throughout the colonial period and this coupled with the great demand for skills and the possibilities for private and self-employment allowed a large amount of private wealth to accumulate in the hands of slaves. From this wealth came the capital for self-purchase and for a multitude of amenities that relieved the daily burden of slavery. Even in the remotest rural areas, Catalan innkeepers kept the rural slaves well supplied with a host of products for their ready cash, including hard liquor and in the urban areas, entire sections of the town were filled with canteens and taverns that catered primarily to the monied slaves.

"This abundance of economic opportunity not only provided a large reserve of private capital for slaves, but it also left them with a rich industrial heritage. The master's investment in the training and education of his slaves of course gave the master a large return on his capital, but it also left the slave endowed with assets that would last him a lifetime. All of this made for an easy transfer from slave status to free. Working in every industry as freedmen, the slaves--once emancipated or having purchased their own freedom--simply continued in the same economic occupation as before, often even in the same factories and shops."

[Herbert S. Klein. *Slavery in the Americas: A Comparative Study of Virginia and Cuba.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1967, pp. 162-63.]

Document Five

"The lot of the Brazilian slaves was rather better than that of their fellow bondmen in the United States. Three most important factors bearing upon the subject remain to be considered; and these should not only remove all question regarding the relative positions of the Brazilian Empire and the North American Union with reference to the matter under consideration, but should lend strong support to the view that the Brazilians treated their African Bondmen better, on the whole, that any other nation.

"One of the factors was the unifying influence of the Roman Catholic Church, with which the casual and diminishing part played by the Protestant groups in the Southern United States offers no comparison. At a very early period it became customary to baptize all Negroes from the Portuguese colony of Angola before placing them on the slave ships; and the law required that all other slaves be taught certain prayers and be baptized within a year after arrival from Africa. Though many masters complied with this requirement rather tardily, they rarely evaded it completely, for to do so was in opposition to public opinion . . . Children of slaves were usually christened promptly after birth, taught the catechism like the children of the free, and in due time, were received in full membership into the church.

"After this, they regularly went to mass and confession, and partook of the sacrament; for all of the large plantations were supplied with chapels and priests. Like the free, they had religious societies, which they themselves officered; and pious slaves gladly contributed of their savings towards the decoration of images of the saints. And

Document Five -2-

finally, the law required that when the slaves earthly labors were ended he be buried, like his white master, in consecrated ground.

"But church membership not only classed the Negro as a living soul capable of salvation. It gave him in the priest a counselor whose influence was largely for the good, and a friend to whom he could appeal for protection against injustice; for the kindness of the Brazilian clergy to their own slaves was proverbial. Most important of all--and most difficult fully to evaluate because of the influence was so subtle--membership in the Roman Church bound the slaves with all the power represented by that organization to white Brazilians in a brotherhood based upon the recognition of God as the common father."

[Richard Graham, ed. *A Century of Brazilian History since 1865*, New York, NY: Knopf, 1969, pp. 56-57.]

Document Six

"Several thousand slaves were hired in Eastern Virginia, during the time of my visit there. The wages paid for able working men, sound, healthy, in good condition and with no especial vices, from twenty to thirty years old, were from $110 to $140; the average, as nearly as I could ascertain, from very extended inquiry, being $120 per year, with board and lodging and certain other expenses. These wages must represent exactly the cost of slave-labor, because any considerations which would prevent the owner of a slave disposing of his labor for those wages, when the labor for his own purposes would not be worth as much, are so many hindrances upon the free disposal of his property, and thereby deduct from its actual value, as measured with money.

"As the large majority of slaves are employed in agricultural labor, and many of those hired at the prices I have mentioned, are taken directly from the labor of the farm, and are skilled in no other, these wages represent the cost of agricultural labor in Eastern Virginia.

"In New York, the usual wages for similar men, if Americans, white or black, are exactly the same in the money part; for Irish or German laborers the most common wages are $10 per month, for summer, and $8 per month, for winter, or from $96 to $120 a year, the average being about $108.

"The hirer has, in addition to paying wages for the slave, to feed and to clothe him; the free laborer requires also to be boarded, but not to be clothed by his employer. The opinion is universal in Virginia that the slaves are better fed than the Northern laborers. This is, however, a mistake, and we must consider that the board of the

Document Six -2-

Northern laborer would cost at least as much more as the additional cost of clothing to the slave. Comparing man with man, with reference simply to equality of muscular power and endurance, I think, all these things considered, the wages for common laborers are *twenty-five per cent* higher in Virginia than in New York. But let it be supposed they are equal."

[Frederick Law Olmsted. *A Journey in the Seaboard States.* New York, NY: Dix & Edwards, 1856, pp. 185-86.]

CHAPTER V

GRASS ROOTS HISTORY

by

Fay D. Metcalf

Introduction

Grass roots history is rapidly gaining a degree of respectability which it lacked for many years. This is the case both among professional historians and teachers of history. It goes by many names--grass roots history, local history, localized history, community studies, and history from the bottom up. Whatever it is called, its increasing popularity is a recognition that much of the history of the American people has been overlooked through the traditional emphasis on national history and the great men of the past. It is a belated acknowledgment that the "anonymous Americans," as one historian has called them, are also an important part of the American past.

Many people, teachers and the public alike, are still in the habit of thinking about American history in terms of the history of the nation. They feel that an historical event, a person, or a place is to be judged significant if it, he, or she in some way contributed to "textbook history," to history on the national level. By that standard the lives of most people are not judged to be historically significant. This national bias is still pervasive, especially in history classrooms, and is still the major source of resistance to local history. But the question is not whether national history is important. Rather, the question is whether national history is the only useful perspective from which to view the American past.

Grass roots history is the study of the past from the perspective of a particular place. The place may be a rural community, a town, a larger city, or an urban neighborhood. Grass roots history is concerned with the people who lived there and what happened to them. Then, is it not limited and parochial? Is it not "mere antiquarianism"? In some cases, it may be. If the questions asked about the locality are limited and parochial, the results may only be of interest to the person who is

00072

asking them. They may not always be very important to him.

The value of grass roots history depends largely upon the kind of questions one is asking and the framework within which they are being asked. One student may be interested in the history of a particular family within the community because he is a descendant of that family. His questions may reflect only his own need for identity. Another student many not be personally concerned about a single family, but may be interested in a family as one of several belonging to a particular ethnic group. Within this broader framework, she may ask questions about how German or Irish or Italian families fared in the community. Still other students may be even less interested in the family itself or its place in the community but still find its experience useful for examining a question such as how farmers adapted to the particular environment of the area. Local history does not have to be parochial.

Finally, no locality is an island unto itself. It shares in the broader cultural, economic, political, and social history of its surrounding environment. Much of its history was influenced by that larger environment. Thus it is clear that any locality can be examined as a case study that has broader significance because other similar cases existed elsewhere. In this sense, local history is an entry into the history of the immediate area, the region, and the nation. If it is compared to other localities in other countries, it can even become the basis for cross-national studies.

The preceding three chapters each described a single teaching lesson exemplifying a different approach to American history. This chapter instead presents several types of in- and out-of-classroom activities that could be used to teach grass roots history. The activities incorporate both structured and unstructured elements.

Learning Objectives

Even though several activities are suggested here, their objectives are presented as a single set. This is because the learning/teaching objectives of all branches of grass roots history are very similar.

S00073

Knowledge

The student will:

1) know that no place is an island, no person is wholly unique, and that nothing happens in a vacuum.

2) know that all current public issues have historical dimensions and must be viewed in a broad context.

3) know that primary materials are the special tools of grass roots history.

Skill Development

The student will:

1) use card catalogues and periodical indexes.

2) read for understanding such documents as old newspapers, abstracts of deeds, county commissioner meeting minutes, maps, census data, and election records.

3) use appropriate techniques in conducting, transcribing, and analyzing oral interviews.

4) develop and evaluate questionnaires.

5) validate and classify historical data.

6) write summaries of findings in a manner which is interesting to readers outside the school environment.

7) develop alternative modes of presenting researched material.

Affect

The student will:

1) attend carefully when seeking information.

2) appreciate the diversity of life styles and cultural patterns exhibited by individuals from other groups--religious, social, age-set, economic, and so on.

3) assume responsibility for setting others at ease.

4) assume responsibility for completing a project of his or her own choosing.

Doing Grass Roots History

The stage is set. Here is a town, community, large city or urban neighborhood. It has a history. How do we study it? How do we organize that study? This is determined by the particular style of the teacher offering the unit or course, the organizational constraints of the school, and the size and age of the community.

Two Courses

A highly structured course that fits local history into the chronology of a traditional American history framework has much to recommend it. The Oliver Ames High School in North Easton, Massachusetts, divides its local history course into units ranging from one to four weeks each. These include: Geographic Background, The Indians of the Area, First Settlers, Background Sequences, American Revolution, Post Revolution to the 1850s, the Civil War, the Gilded Age, 1910 to 1945, and Since World War II. The merit of this approach is that the students have already had a survey of these topics the previous year and can apply this understanding while they are looking at the experiences of North Easton. This approach also avoids the danger of provincialism that haunts the academician who finds himself interested in local history, since every topic is part of the larger national picture. (Pratt and Haley 1973)

A second approach is regional rather than national in scope. At Boulder High School in Boulder, Colorado, Grass Roots History is offered as an alternative to the regular course in the American West. This course is similar to the Oliver Ames course in its first two sections--a first unit on Habitat and Environment and a second unit on the Native Americans of the Rocky Mountain region. The remainder of the course is very different. The colonial period studied is that of the Spanish, and when students talk of the Revolution, they are more likely to be referring to the Mexican Revolution than the American Revolution. The emphasis is on regional developments from the middle of the 19th century to the present. After the introductory units and several periods spent on skill development, the students devote the last 12 weeks of the course to historical research. This takes the form of a variety of independent projects, each of which explores an aspect of Boulder history that can be related to the larger history of the region. Some recent topics have been the local development of ranching and the life styles associated with it, the evolution of farming techniques, a comparative study of the image of the Western badman in history and fiction and the career of a particular outlaw buried in a local cemetery, and a study that traces the ethnic composition of Boulder during different stages of its growth and relates these changes to regional history. During this time the students meet in the classroom three days a week

for conferences, special audiovisual and speaker presentations, and small-group work for specialized research and training in specialized skills. Each student, individually or in small groups, must complete two projects each semester. These are presented to the class and to elementary schools in the district and are copied for deposit in the school and public libraries.*

Written Sources for Local History

However you decide to structure your class's venture into grass roots history, you will undoubtedly want to employ some documentary source material.

Town, city, and county histories are found everywhere. While some are excellent, most are slanted in favor of the leading citizens and overemphasize the importance of particular local achievements. Still, all of them are worth examining, since they do give vital information on other sources and convey a sense of how some people in the community viewed themselves.

State and regional histories have usually been written by professional historians and are factually accurate. These, too, may be read for background information. Most states have guides that were written as part of the Federal Writers' Project of the Depression Era. They provide a combination of history and tour information and may be a useful starting point.

Anniversary booklets have been published by towns celebrating a jubilee or centennial and by businesses celebrating their own longevity. While usually self-congratulatory, both of these sources often have important information that can be of value to students. They also contain some excellent collections of old photographs.

Local newspapers are probably the most fruitful source of information. Those that have been in business for a long time are proud of their collections and are usually generous in allowing students to use their libraries. State and local historical societies usually have microfilm copies of the papers published in the local area. Not only

*If you would like more information on this project, contact Fay Metcalf at Boulder (Colorado) High School, (303) 442-2430.

do the news stories and editorials invite attention, but also the advertisements and features. These tell students a great deal about everyday life and about the values of the people of the time. They frequently have large photograph collections and most of them allow students to make their own copies.

Family histories are also great sources of information. Students will enjoy doing their own, and they will find that analyzing the results of several studies will tell them a great deal about their local community--even when many of them are relative newcomers. Many libraries have holdings in genealogical records. While some are only a record on "begats," most of them also include some information on community history. Similarily, family albums also include useful information. Often there are photographs of the town in various stages of its growth and mementos such as programs from fraternal lodge activities, high school plays and dances, and special civic celebrations.

Letters, diaries, and journals are more difficult to locate than published materials, but when available they are sources of great importance. Students, when they become excited about the subject, often turn up such materials. It is from these that the flavor of the everyday life of the community can be found. People often write ideas in a diary that they would be reluctant to discuss in public.

Business records, club yearbooks, and school annuals are other sources for specific information. They often give brief but specific information about individuals as well as descriptive materials about prices, styles, and the general concerns of a community. The economic viability of a community can be judged from its business records; the ethnic makeup of the community can be discerned from its yearbooks.

Although public records are another important source of information in any local area, students often find them difficult to use. Too often, those charged with custody of these papers are overworked and unable to handle the many requests for use made by students. Teachers should alert their students to the fact that some records are not available for public scrutiny. Many records, however, are public property and these should be used. The *County and City Data Book* is published periodically by the Social and Economic Statistics Administration,

00077

Bureau of the Census. Demographic studies provide a "fix" on the community. When statistics are compared over many decades, one begins to get a real sense of given locality.

Oral History

With the arrival of the cheap and easily portable tape recorder, oral history has become very popular in the schools. Widely used for many years by countless teachers to develop a student's sense of the implications of the Great Depression, the home front during World War II, or the response to the Vietnam War, the technique has even greater possibilities in the study of grass roots history.

Students should, however, have training in the proper use of the machine and in interviewing techniques before they go out into the field. Both Tyrell (1973) and Baum (1974) are useful for this purpose. The following guidelines have been adapted from their works and will be useful for teachers planning to use oral history in their classes.

Before the interview, have your students do the following things:

1) Contact the narrator by letter, phone call, or in person. Give the person a general idea of what you would like to ask. Do not go into detail; you do not want the narrator to have a polished speech prepared.

2) Determine the general type of information you are after. Do your homework, especially if you are going to ask about mining or farming or some other topic about which you know little. Make an outline of the general kinds of information you want. Not only will this give you confidence if the interview tends to lag, but the information you are able to obtain will be much more useful.

3) Practice asking questions that permit you to control the interview. By the questions you ask, you can keep the narrator talking about the topic of interest, avoid straying from the topic, or change the topic.

4) Practice over and over again with your tape recorder. You do not want to fumble with the machine, making both you and the narrator nervous, and you do not want to end up with a blank tape.

5) Remember to take a release form for the narrator to sign and an extension cord. These are always important. (A sample release form is shown on page 77 in Figure 1.)

6) Always have extra good-quality tapes with you. A 60- to 90-minute mylar is a good choice for oral history.

00078

Suggest the following guidelines to your students for conducting the interview:

1) Spend the first few minutes of your appointment in general conversation. You might wish to play the recorder during this and then play it back so that both you and the narrator know that the recorder is working properly.

2) Be an active listener. Find out why? how? when? where?

3) Don't interrupt a good story with questions. Instead jot down some notes so that you may ask the questions later.

4) Don't worry about silences--allow the narrator time to think.

5) Don't switch the recorder on and off. Tape is not so expensive that you can't wast a little bit.

6) Time yourself so that you remember to turn the tape over at the proper time.

7) Interview only one person at a time and never with more than two interviewers. If two of you work together, make sure that one person asks the questions and the other takes notes.

8) Many of the people you will be dealing with will be elderly. Be certain that you do not tire them. An hour is about the limit. It is better to make several trips than to tire someone.

9) If any painful memories have been brought up, try to change the subject before you leave. Make sure that you leave the narrator in a pleasant frame of mind.

10) Be sure to have the narrator sign a release form.

After an interview is completed, it must be catalogued so that it can be easily retrieved for reference in writing reports and developing audio presentations. There is a division of opinion as to whether it should also be transcribed. Tapes wear out, and cassettes have a tendency to tangle. On the other hand, transcribing is a long, tedious job and the time might be better spent by the student doing more productive work. In the unlikely event that a student should obtain a tape that is of inestimable value, it should be transcribed or duplicated, but for normal classroom use this is not usually done. A record of what the tape contains is, however, vital for your students and for future scholars. Most schools use an adaptation of the form developed for the Bancroft Library at the University of California, Berkeley. This is shown in Figure 2 on page 78.

Figure 1.

Model Release Form

BOULDER HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY DEPARTMENT

I hereby give and grant to the Grass Roots History class of Boulder High School as a donation for such scholarly and educational use as the class shall determine these tape recordings and their contents listed below.

_____

Name of Narrator

_____

Address of Narrator

_____

Name of Interviewer

_____

Date of Agreement

Subject of tape(s): _____

_____

Figure 2.

Model Catalogue Form

General Topic of Interview_____

Date_____ Place_____ Length_____

Personal Data:

Narrator	Interviewer
Name:_____	Name:_____
Address:_____	Address:_____
_____	_____
Name, address of relative, friend	Relationship to narrator (neighbor, co-worker, etc.)
_____	_____
Birthplace_____	_____
Birthdate_____	Length of acquaintance_____
Occupation(s)_____	_____
_____	What was the occasion of the interview?_____
_____	_____

Interview Data:

Side 1

Side 2

Estimated time on tape:	Subjects covered in approximate order (please spell out names of persons and places mentioned).
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Use back of sheet if necessary

00081

Family History

All of us have questions about who we are. We can look about us at our physical surroundings and at our friends and find answers to some of our questions; but much of what we are today has roots in our family backgrounds. A good way to discover why we behave in certain ways and not in others or why we believe in certain things and not in others is to look at our family histories. Our attitudes and much of our belief systems have developed in some family context. It is important for us to understand this heritage. But even more important than this sense of self, which can be refined through this process, is the potential in knowledge of ourselves as Americans. Many of the questions presently being asked by social historians focus on the family and its intergenerational continuities and discontinuites. Migration, mobility, changes in family size, changes in the role of women, attitudes toward ethnic identity, the effects that industrialization and modernization have had on traditional belief systems, values, and even recreation--all these can be more readily understood through comparative family studies.

No one would suggest that student-produced family histories would at once turn into a vast reservoir of useful documents, but one would hope that the process of doing a family history would enchance a student's ability to ask meaningful questions about the past. Below is described a much abbreviated version of the methods used by Boulder High School students in studying family history.

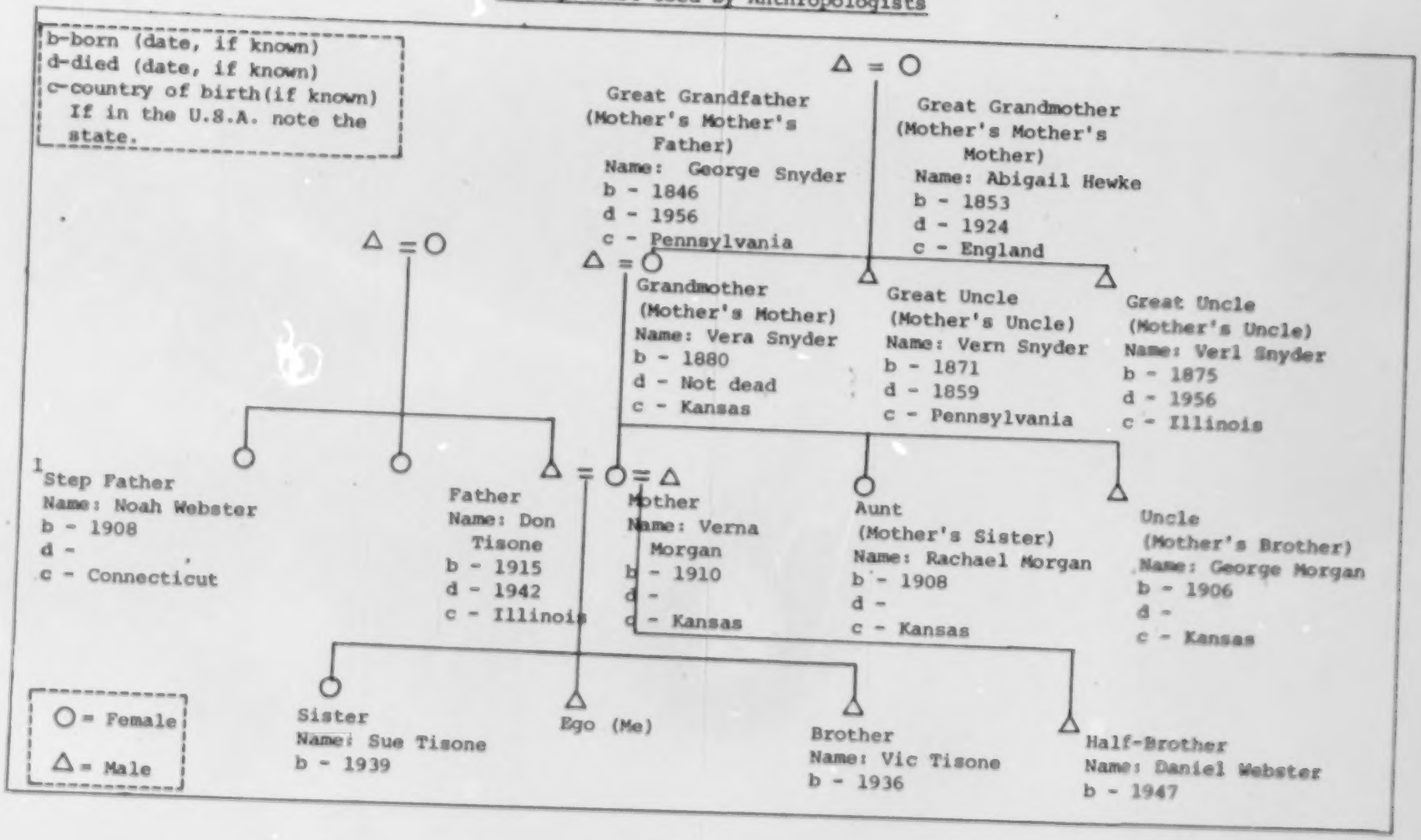
Charting the family. Make a family tree or chart of your ancestors. You may use either of the examples given (see figures 3 and 4 on page 80 and page 81), or you may devise your own method.

Interviewing. Interview as many of the people on your chart as possible. Try to get information about the others from relatives or from old family friends. If you can tape record interviews, do so. Exact words used to describe incidents and descriptions may become important if you have conflicting evidence. If you cannot interview people in person or by telephone, write a letter in which you ask specific questions.

00082

Figure 3

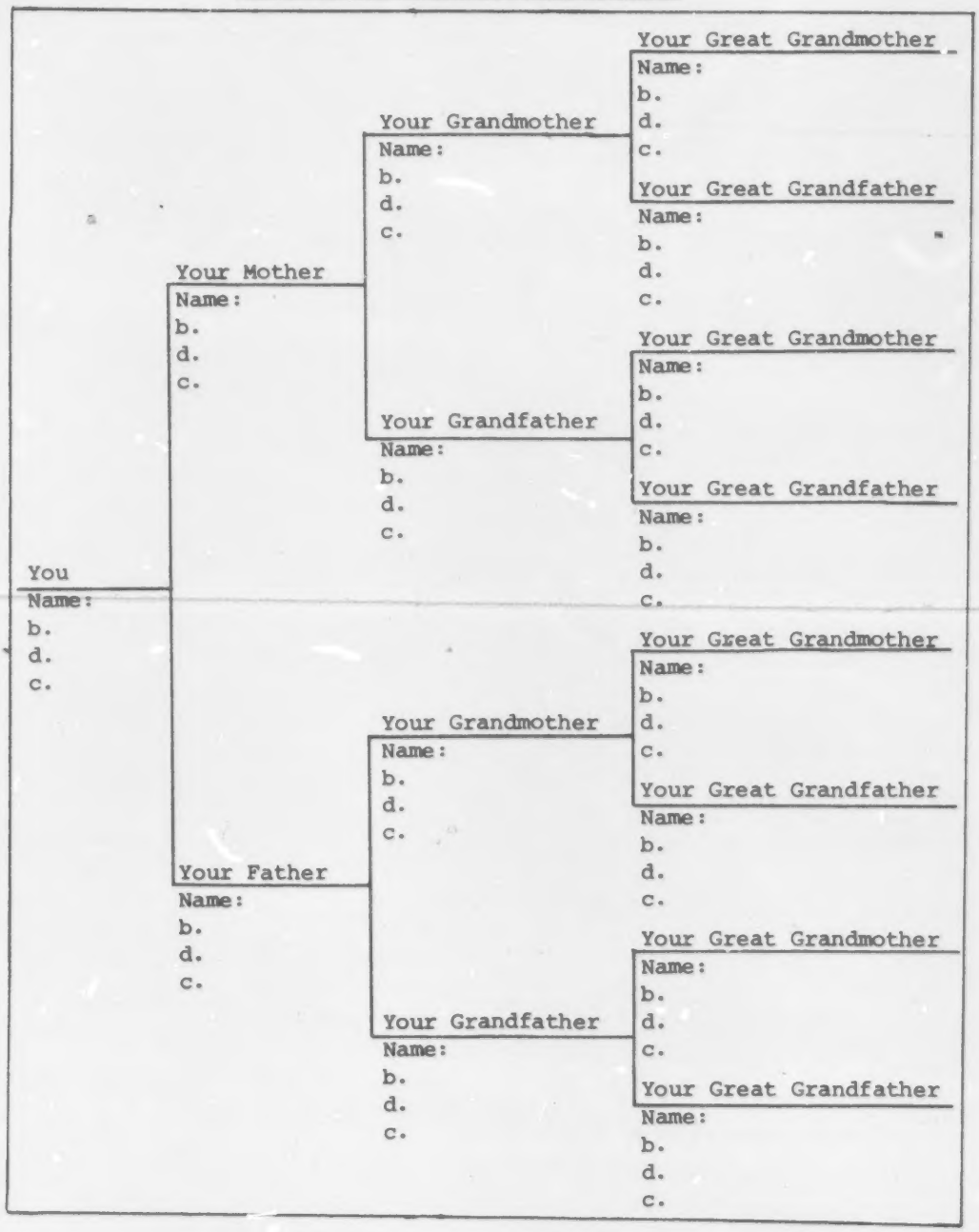
Family Chart Used by Anthropologists



000083

Figure 4

Family Chart Used by Genealogists



Using other sources of information. Some families have kept a family Bible, letters to and from the "Old Country," diaries, journals, business records, and so on. Many also have large collections of family photographs. Obtain as many of these as possible, and be sure that they are carefully labeled with full names, places and dates.

Mapping. It is much easier to get a feel for the family if you look at maps and find the places referred to in the sources you've studied. You will want to use outline maps, gas station maps, or your own maps to show these places in your report.

Reporting. After you have gathered all the information possible, you will face the rather difficult task of organization. One method you might use is to start with your parents, and then go back as many generations as possible. You might (a) tell the life of your mother up to marriage, (b) tell the life of your father up to marriage, (c) tell of their married life together, (d) repeat the process for grandparents, and so on. Have a title page and give credit to your sources. Use photographs of the people discussed, the homes and towns they lived in, and the places they worked at if possible.

Resources for Teaching Grass Roots History

It is impossible in a short paper to list all the ways that grass roots history might be approached in the classroom. Certainly one must pick and choose according to one's own inclinations, the feasibility of this method in one's own institutional setting, and the interests and abilities of one's own group of students. Methods which might be used include local history based on written documents, oral history, family history, folklore collections, demographic studies, and industrial archaeology.

Excellent publications on a practical level are now available for help in course planning. Three useful resources are: *Finding Relevance in Your Own Backyard: A Course in Local History* (Pratt and Haley 1973), *Collecting and Using Local History* (Muth 1971), and "Our Town Revisited" (Spiegel 1973).

The technical leaflets published by the American Association for State and Local History (1315 Eighth Avenue South, Nashville, Tennessee 37203)

00085

are essential. Those which pertain especially to pre-collegiate student use include *Tape-recording Local History* (Tyrrell 1973), *Writing Local History* (Warner 1970), *History for Young People: Projects and Activities* (Platt 1966), *Methods of Research for the Amateur Historian* (Hale 1969), and *Cemetery Transcribing: Preparations and Procedures* (Newman 1971). The Association has also published Baum's *Oral History for the Local Historical Society* (1974) which has become a classic in the field since it was first published.

The History Teacher (published by California State University at Long Beach, Long Beach, California 90840) has recently published a number of articles that are very useful. The November 1973 issue includes three articles teachers will want to read: "Family History Projects Add Meaning to an Introductory Survey" by David ... Culbert; "Writing Local History in a Seminar on Historical Research" by Ted L. Underwood; and "Recovering the History of a Black Community' by Dominic Candeloro. The February 1975 issue has an article by Beatrice Spadé, "Americans in Vietnam: An Oral History Project." All of these articles are available from *The History Teacher* as reprints. Although they have been written for college level courses they can be easily adapted to secondary level.

A British publication that frequently contains articles on local and environmental studies is *Teaching History* (published by the Historical Association, 59A Kennington Park Road, London, SE11 4JH England). Although the British have a different terminology for grass roots history and their resources are vastly different from ours, the rationale, the conceptual framework, and the strategies are cross-national. *The Canadian Journal of History* (University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada) also frequently publishes articles that may be adapted for American schools. Another Canadian approach to local history is a joint project of the Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia, and the larger province newspapers of Western Canada. Materials developed by the faculty are printed as feature articles by the papers. (More information on the project may be obtained from Angus M. Gunn, Faculty of Education, U.B.C., 2075 Wesbrook Place, Vancouver B.C., Canada V6T 1W5.)

00086

One of the best and most succinct works on the uses of folklore is *Folklore: Collecting Folklore, American Folk Tradition, and Books for Reading* (Blaney 1970). Besides describing regional folklore and how one goes about collecting it, the work contains a selected bibliography of folklore, folktales, folk songs, proverbs and riddles, and periodicals.

Several publications from the fields of geography and sociology are pertinent. Among the best of these are *Finding Community: A Guide to Community Research and Action* (Jones 1971), *The Local Community: A Handbook for Teachers* (High School Geography Project 1971), and *Studying Your Community* (Warren 1955).

Popular works that contain a grass roots perspective include *Diary of an Early American Boy* (Sloane 1962) and the classic *Foxfire* volumes (Wigginton 1972, 1973, 1975) available at any good bookstore.

References.

Baum, Willa K. *Oral History for the Local Historical Society.* Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, rev. ed. 1974.

Blaney, Charles D., ed. Folklore: *Collecting Folklore, American Folk Tradition, and Books for Reading.* Terre Haute, IN: Indiana Council of Teachers of English, Indiana University, 1970. ED 049 221.

Hale, Richard W., Jr. *Methods of Research for the Amateur Historian.* Technical Leaflet 21. Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1969.

High School Geography Project. *The Local Community: A Handbook for Teachers.* New York, NY: Macmillan, 1971.

Jones, William Ron. *Finding Community: A Guide to Community Research and Action.* Palo Alto, CA: James E. Freel and Associates, 1971.

Muth, Marcia. *Collecting and Using Local History.* Santa Fe, NM: New Mexico Research Library of the Southwest, 1971. ED 050 759.

Newman, John J. *Cemetery Transcribing: Preparations and Procedures.* Technical Leaflet 9. Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1971.

Platt, Doris. *History for Young People: Projects and Activities.* Technical Leaflet 38. Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1966.

Pratt, Francis, and Frances Haley. *Finding Relevance in Your Own Backyard: A Course in Local History (Profiles of Promise, #10).* Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium, 1973. ED 083 120.

Sloane, Eric. *Diary of an Early American Boy.* New York, NY: W. Funk, 1962.

Spiegel, Phyllis. "Our Town Revisited." *Teacher,* 91:4 (December 1973) 32-35.

Tyrrell, William G. *Tape-recording Local History.* Technical Leaflet 35. Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, rev. ed. 1973.

Warner, Sam B., Jr. *Writing Local History.* Technical Leaflet 7. Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, rev. ed. 1970.

Warren, Roland L. *Studying Your Community.* New York, NY: Free Press, 1955.

Wigginton, Eliot, ed. *Foxfire,* 3 vols. Garden City, NJ: Doubleday, 1972, 1973, 1975.

CHAPTER VI

THE INFORMATION WIZARD

by

Douglas Alder

Why Teach Information Retrieval Skills?

Much classroom learning is at the attending, listening, and comprehending levels. Essential as this is, it is not as dynamic as the "learning by doing" that John Dewey suggested or the analysis and synthesis levels that Bloom has categorized.

We all know that within a few months our students forget most of what we teach. So it is obvious to all teachers that teaching the learning process is more fundamental than teaching any specific piece of content. Yet most lessons focus explicity on content with the implicit hope that students will pick up some process skills as a by-product.

This chapter reverses the priorities. The process is primary in the lesson ideas presented here and the content is supportive. (Note--separation of process and product is rarely possible and likely not desirable.) Students are taught to find information rather than to recall it, to discover and choose sources rather than merely to read what is assigned.

Inquiry teaching places a greater burden upon the teacher than textbook teaching. As the lessons in this volume are designed to demonstrate, the teacher must be resourceful in locating inquiry materials to be brought into the classroom. But classroom handouts and the teacher's initiative are only the beginning of the process.

The real excitement and the most rewarding part of the learning process begins when the students start to pursue the search for answers on their own. Thus, full-fledged inquiry poses a larger challenge to the students, too. Of course, the process is even still more rewarding when the students, in their search for information, begin to ask their own questions.

This means that the inquiry-oriented teacher must be concerned about

00089

teaching the process of inquiry. Students cannot engage in this process fruitfully until the teacher has helped them develop some basic skills.

In this chapter we offer several scenarios that are intended to challenge the students. Teachers may improve these scenarios considerably by rewriting them to fit their school library, public library, or other nearby collections. They may even create completely new problems. That is fine; if these problems descriptions can stimulate better ones we will feel complimented.

Teachers will have to decide whether to use all of the scenarios and whether to have students work in groups or individually. Most likely the students will work better in a contest or competition atmosphere. But, here again, teachers should make their own choices and design their own rewards. They should also decide whether competition against the clock is a desirable incentive.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

The student will:

1) learn several facts to answer his/her problem.

Skill Development

The student will:

1) discover and employ several information retrieval tools to solve a problem.
2) demonstrate individual resourcefulness in pursuing information.
3) report his/her findings in an orderly form.

Affect

The student will:

1) feel an increased degree of control over the library, losing some of his/her reticence for using reference works.
2) catch the spirit of the detective--searching beyond the obvious for clues.

Scenarios

1) The judges in an essay contest about the American Revolution need some help. You are asked to find a list of basic facts about the

Revolution, a map of an area in the Revolutionary War, some writings from eyewitness observers, short biographies of major participants such as the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and anything else that is short and helpful.

2) You volunteer to help as a school aide in an inner-city school. Seventy percent of the students are Black. You decide to have the students study their Black heritage. First, you must find out all you can about the subject yourself. See what you can find on Negro slavery in America, the slave trade from Africa, slavery in other lands, and Negro life in tribal Africa. Make a list of all the references and facts you find. Are there maps of the slave trade from Africa or of the tribes in Africa? Can you find anything written by slaves? Are there articles about slaves or Black history?

3) You are working at the Brazilian Embassy in the United States. They want you to be their expert on American life. A delegation of mayors from their country is coming to the United States for a six-week tour. They want to find out how we are handling the major problems of industrialism in the U.S. because their country is industrializing rapidly. Design a six-week tour of the major American industries. Select six or more different major factories or industrial sites that Brazilians could develop in their country. Find out what you can about the industry, the process and materials used, the size of the work force, and any other matters about that industry. Place this information in a portfolio for each industry. Add a list of articles they might read on each industry. Suggest what you think the major problems are that face each industry and that each has created in its environment.

4) Your town (or neighborhood) is about to celebrate its 100th (or 300th) birthday. The school decides to have several events such as assemblies, essay contests, and displays on this theme. The writers of the assembly scripts, the essayists, and the artists need a list of sources about the area. Anything you can find is important.

Consider its whole history from the beginning to the present. Geographic and economic information will help! Be resourceful--include people, newspapers, pictures, and other sources.

5) You are assistant to the Governor. He must give a speech at the graduation of an Indian high school. Find out all you can about the town (if there is one), the county, the reservation, and the tribe, so he can include several references to the local situation in his speech. Can you find something about the tribe's customs, religion, means of making a living, and frustrations?

6) Other possible scenarios include:

   a) Problems centering around locating a new industrial plant.
   b) Finding sources to recreate the anti-slavery/pro-slavery debate in the 19th century.
   c) Discovering how many American Indian cultures have existed in the United States.
   d) Retracing the military events, forces, and locations of the American Revolution.
   e) Locating the industrial archeological sites in your community.
   f) Finding articles on oral history.
   g) Finding the legal benefits for someone who just became unemployed.
   h) Finding the legal rights for workers to organize and strike.
   i) Developing a lobby to get government support for the arts; cite the great works of American art.
   j) Finding supporting arguments for pacifism; finding examples of American leadership without war.

Student Handout:

The Information Wizard

Many years ago the most powerful people in the society were those who controlled land or armies. Later, the most powerful were the rich. Within our lifetime a new elite is emerging. These are information managers. Many of them work in computer centers. You have probably seen

TV series and science fiction movies that describe such people.

Right now all information is not available on computer tapes. Much of it is still buried in libraries. In this lesson you are to be an "information wizard" who can retrieve information quickly from a library so that important people can act on it. This is no busy-work assignment; it is a real kind of assignment that many people get paid to do. All leaders have to have an information staff. For example, all senators, congressmen, and governors and many people in the press, in business, in industry, and in education, need such wizards. Sometimes the wizards even become the leaders themselves.

So here goes! You will be given a task as though you were such a wizard. The next sheet will give you some suggestions of where to go--but don't just use these ideas. Really "smoke out" every idea you can. Ask the librarian for ideas, but mostly use your own wits. Think, think, think! Try a dozen or more possibilities. Before long you will find something to solve the problem--maybe something the librarian and your teacher didn't even know about.

Some Tricks of the Trade

Look in all these places--try *every one*:

Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature
Dictionaries, such as *Dictionary of American History*
Encyclopedias
Almanacs
Atlases and maps
Yearbooks--encyclopedia, UN, etc.
Book Review Digest
Biographies, such as:
Current Biography
Who's Who
Twentieth Century Authors
American Authors, 1800-1900

How To Look

Finding information is like being a detective. You must think of all the possible clues. Just walking into the library and looking up your topic in the card catalog will not "solve the crime." You must think of many places to look and many things to look for.

If you were looking for something on the American Revolution you might not find what you want under "A." Where else could you look? Try lots of synonyms or related words: Rebellion, Loyalists, Colonialists, Patriots, Declaration of Independence, Boston Tea Party, Thomas Jefferson, and so on.

Also, don't stay in the card catalog. That will only lead you to books. Maybe you want something shorter. So try all the things listed above in "places to look." You have to be a real sleuth--looking for clues and following them up.

Make Notes

When you find something, write it down. Be sure you write everything necessary for you or someone else to find it again. Here is a suggested form:

Author's name, "Article Title," *Name of the book or publication you found it in*, volume. (City it was published in, publisher, year of publication) exact page.

Then write a sentence or two underneath this to describe what you found. Example:

I found this through *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*. The article is interesting. It is about the famous statue of Washington by Horatio Greensborough and how it has been moved to many different sites in Washington, D. C.

CHAPTER VII

AMERICAN HISTORY RESOURCES

by

Don English

Various kinds of useful resources are available for teaching American history courses. The following is an annotated list of some of these materials from commercial publishers and ERIC. It is divided into six sections, listing games and simulations, supplementary audiovisual materials, primary document collections, teacher resource books, journals that emphasize history instructional techniques and resources, and ERIC documents.

Games and simulations are listed in the first section. They provide an interesting change of pace for students and help to stimulate both interest and motivation. Many of the American history games listed simulate political or economic events in American history. Although research indicates that games do not increase student content knowledge about these events any more than traditional methods, game playing does provide a unique opportunity for students to learn about the dynamics of decision making and the allocation of resources. They learn about the pressures, incentives, moral problems, and intellectual problems that a decision maker must consider when a policy is being formulated. However, debriefing the game remains the most important part of the learning experience. Here students analyze their game experiences, generalize from these experiences, and draw parallels between the simulation and reality. Debriefing is an indispensable step in teaching with games and simulations.

The use of audio-filmstrips, slide programs, photographs, and recordings can also provide an interesting supplement to the history curriculum. The second section of the following list contains just a portion of the many materials now in publication and indicates the wide variety of subject areas and topics available for classroom use. Of course, teachers should be selective in their choice of materials and preview all filmstrips before using them.

Document collections are especially useful in providing primary

00095

sources for teaching through the structured inquiry approach. The third section of the following list contains a cross section of such materials on political, military, and economic history as well as materials emphasizing society, culture, and everyday life in the United States.

The fourth and fifth sections of this list mention a few teacher resource books and journals that provide exemplary lesson suggestions and tips on techniques, strategies, and resources for teaching American history.

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) also contains a multitude of history materials, mostly from noncommercial sources. Some ERIC documents are included in Chapter Five, while others are listed in the sixth section of this chapter. Although these documents in this chapter do not use the structured inquiry approach, they provide useful ideas, lesson suggestions, and resources and indicate some of the kinds of information available in ERIC.

If you are interested in seeing any of the ERIC documents in this paper, check your local college library or educational center to determine if there is an ERIC Microfiche Collection. There are over 570 collections in the United States where you can read an entire document on microfiche.

If you wish to obtain a copy of the document, you may order it from the Educational Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), Computer Microfilm International Corporation, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210 When ordering a document, be sure to include the six-digit ED (ERIC accession) number, specify either microfiche (MF) or paper copy (HC), and enclose a check or money order. The price of the document is indicated in the reference and postage cost must be included in your check or money order.

Games

Abolition: An American History Simulation Game. By Russ and Virginia Durham. Random House, 201 East 50th St., New York, NY 10022. 1971.

Students role play fictitious citizens who live in a Northern town called Freeman. Each citizen participant becomes directly involved in the emotional moral conflict that emerges following the passage of the Fugitive Slave Act in 1850. This game is part of a larger supplementary unit, *Viewpoints on American Abolition.*

American History Games. By Alice Kaplan Gordon. Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie St., Chicago, IL 60611. 1970.

This kit contains a set of six role-playing games dealing with major issues and periods in United States history. "Colony" is the study of economic relationships between England and the colonies prior to the Revolutionary War. "Frontier" is a comparative analysis of economic and political developments in the Northwest and Southwest between 1815 and 1830. "Reconstruction" focuses on the interrelationships of Southern planters, farmers, freedmen, and Congress after the Civil War. "Promotion" focuses on industrial growth. "Intervention" examines the conflicting interests involved with U.S. intervention in Cuba, the Philippines, and the Dominican Republic at the turn of the century. "Development" focuses on the use of foreign aid by modern major powers to win the loyalty of neutral and developing countries.

Democracy. By James S. Coleman. Western Publishing Company, School and Library Department, 850 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022. 1969.

This is a set of eight games that represent various stages of decision making in the democratic process. Participants play the roles of citizens and legislators in a mock legislature.

Dismia. By David Yount and Paul Dekock. Interact Company, P.O. Box 262, Lakeside, CA 92040. 1968.

This three-week unit of study combines traditional research activities with simulation activities. Students role play citizens of seven imaginary states trying to improve their individual wealth and security as well as that of their state. The struggle simulates the conflicting philosophies and interests during the period 1776-1789 in the formation of the U.S. Constitution. This is a very time-consuming game.

Game of Empire. Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago, IL 60640. 1970.

This game is a component of the course *From Subject to Citizen.* Students play members of the Atlantic trading community, especially

England and its American colonies around 1735. Each of the competitive teams represents an interest group that either produces or trades goods with the objective of increasing its wealth at the expense of others. Two teachers are necessary to coordinate the game.

The Game of Farming. Macmillan Company, School Division, 866 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022. 1969.

Students assume the roles of farmers in western Kansas in three separate historical periods: 1800-1882, 1919-1921, and 1933-1935. Each farmer must make yearly decisions as to how he will allocace his resources.

Hard Rock Mine Strike. By Russ and Virginia Durham. Random House, 201 East 50th St., New York, NY 10022. 1970.

As part of the larger supplementary unit, *Viewpoints on American Labor*, this game simulates various historical factors behind the labor-management conflicts during the late 19th century. Players assume the roles of striking coal miners and the opposing management.

NAPOLI. Simile II, 1150 Silverado, LaJolla, CA 92037. 1969.

In NAPOLI (NAtional POLItics), players act as members of two political parties in a national legislature and try to assure their own re-election and the passage of various legislation.

Peace. By Arthur Petersen. Interact Company, P.O. Box 262, Lakeside, CA 92040. 1972.

In the first phase, students role play five historical political factions that took differing positions on the events leading to America's entry into World War I. In the second phase, students role play U.S. senators debating the Versailles Treaty. The suggested time for playing this game is 15 to 30 hours.

Portsville. Macmillan Company, School Division, 866 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022. 1969.

Groups of students, using modulex boards and plastic building blocks, are asked to design a city as it grows during three different time periods.

Pursuit. Reader's Digest Services, Educational Division, Pleasantville, NY 10570. 1970.

Players assume the roles of six young Black Americans who must determine achievement goals in the areas of housing, voting, public accommodations, vocation, and education during the Civil Rights Movement from 1954 to 1968.

Radicals vs. Tories. By David N. DalPorto. History Simulations, P.O. Box 2775, Santa Clara, CA 95052. 1972.

Students take the roles of radical, Tory, and moderate delegates to the Second Continental Congress and must decide whether to remain in the British system or declare independence.

Railroad Game. American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, OH 43216. 1967.

Students take the parts of the managers of four railroad lines competing to carry ore from the mines in Oretown to the mills in Steeltown. The game is part of *The Railroad Era* unit of the Harvard Social Studies Project.

1787: A Simulation Game. By Eric Rothschild and Werner Feig. Olcott Forward Publishers, 234 North Central Ave., Hartsdale, NY 10530. 1970.

Students play fictional delegates to a mock Constitutional Convention. They propose and vote on alternative ways of structuring a new federal government.

Sitte. Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1150 Silverado, LaJolla, CA 92037. 1969.

Students assume roles as members of five special interest groups and attempt to influence decisions regarding city planning and government.

Spanish American War. By Ronald Lundstedt and David N. DalPorto. History Simulations, P.O. Box 2775, Santa Clara, CA 95052. 1969.

This is a simulation of the interplay between the forces for and against war and the pressure exerted on the government of the United States. Students play the roles of special interest groups and members of the executive and legislative branches.

Starpower. By R. Garry Shirts. Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1150 Silverado, LaJolla, CA 92037. 1969.

Students explore the dimensions of power in a competitive society by personally accumulating wealth and power at the expense of others.

Sunshine. By David Yount and Paul Dekock. Interact Company, P.O. Box 262, Lakeside, CA 92040. 1968.

The game combines traditional study of the history of the American Negro with a simulation experience that requires students to cope with the realities of racial problems in contemporary community life.

Trade-Off at Yalta. By Daniel Caleb Smith. Scott Graphics, Educational Division, 104 Lower Westfield Rd., Holyoke, MA 01040. 1972.

Assuming the roles of Roosevelt, Churchill, Stalin, and their various advisors, students confront five major problems that faced the Allies at the end of World War II. The task is to arrive at a settlement through "trade-offs" which all can accept.

Triangle Trade. By Russ Durham and Jack Crawford. Simulations Systems Program, United States International University, Instructional Development Division, P.O. Box 1028, Corvallis, OR 97330. 1969.

This simulation acquaints participants with the economic structure of the New England colonies and mercantile system of Great Britain. Students play roles of shipmasters, planters, port authorities, bankers, and the British Navy in the triangle trade of rum for slaves for sugar.

The Union Divides. Olcott Forward Publishers, 234 North Central Ave., Hartsdale, NY 10530. 1971.

Assuming the roles of 30 state governors meeting in Philadelphia periodically during the years 1850 to 1861, players confront seven sectional issues that must be debated and resolved by majority vote.

Supplementary Audio-Visual Materials

Accent on Ethnic America. By Mary H. Manoni. Multi Media Productions, P.O. Box 5097, Stanford, CA 94305. 1971.

This series of sound-filmstrips examines the special problems of Chinese Americans, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, American Jews, Italian Americans, Polish Americans, and Japanese Americans in United States society.

America. By Alistair Cooke. Time-Life Education, Box 834, Radio City Post Office, New York, NY 10019. 1973.

This filmstrip series is a classroom adaptation of Alistair Cooke's television presentation, "America: A Personal History of the United States."

American Art and Architecture. Educational Dimensions Corporation, Box 488, Great Neck, NY 11022. 1971.

Three sound-filmstrips compose this program of humanities and history. The program examines American painting and architecture from colonial times up to the present.

American Civilization. Educational Dimensions Corporation, Box 488, Great Neck, NY 11022. 1971.

The discovery of the New World, colonial history, westward expansion, economic growth, America as a world power, and America as world leader are studied through poetry, literature, and art in this series of six sound-filmstrips.

001014

The American Genius. Educational Dimensions Corporation, Box 488, Great Neck, NY 11022. 1972.

Four sound-filmstrips examine the literary and artistic development of American authors and artists from the 1880s to the 1970s.

The City in History. Educational Dimensions Corporation, Box 488, Great Neck, NY 11022. 1972.

Two sound-filmstrips trace the evolution of cities in American history and emphasize the creative environment found within them.

The Distorted Image: Stereotype and Caricature in American Popular Graphics 1850-1922. By John J. and Selma Appel. Anti-Defamation League at B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Ave., New York, NY 10016.

Cartoons and illustrations from mass-circulation magazines reveal the extent and nature of stereotyping of minority groups in the United States in this sound-slide program.

Ethnic Studies: The Peoples of America. By Donn Mosenfelder. Educational Design, 47 West 13th St., New York, NY 10011. 1973.

This program contains four sound-filmstrips, 14 lesson tapes dealing with 19 major ethnic groups, two cameo tapes containing brief dramatic episodes in the history of different ethnic groups, and summary and exercise sheets. The meaning of ethnicity, immigration, and culture of the various ethnic groups is stressed.

Folk Songs and the American Flag. By Alice Low. Warren Schloat Productions, Pleasantville, NY 10570. 1969.

The Revolutionary War provides the background for the early history of the American Flag and patriotic folk songs in this sound-filmstrip program.

Folk Songs in American History. By Richard Sternberg. Warren Schloat Productions, Pleasantville, NY 10570. 1969.

America's heritage from 1700 to 1967 is reflected through traditional folk songs, period paintings, documentary photographs, and authen-

tic illustrations in the 12 sound-filmstrips of this program.

Great American Women's Speeches. By Sharon Donovan, ed. Caedmon Records, 505 Eigth Ave., New York, NY 10018. 1973.

Speeches by Susan B. Anthony, Carrie Chapman Catt, Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and others on women's rights are read on this two-record set.

Immigration and Migration: The American Experience. By Charles F. Novostad. Nystrom, 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago, IL 60618. 1975.

This kit of five sound-filmstrips provides a broad sociocultural history of America by studying the origins and development of various ethnic groups.

The Origins of American Values: The Puritan Ethic to the Jesus Freaks. Center for Humanities, 2 Holland Ave., White Plains, NY 10603. 1973.

This two-part sound-slide program is part of a larger program, *Humanities Curriculum Units*, designed to introduce a humanities dimension into school curricula. This particular program leads students through an historical account of the various philosophical and intellectual movements in America.

Pictures of a Decade: 1900-10, 1910-20, 1920-30, 1930-40, 1940-50, 1950-60, 1960-70. National Educational Aids, P.O. Box 3351, Milwaukee, WI 53208. 1974.

Each decade contains pictures thematically arranged to include the changing mores, the ingenuity of American conscience, and human foibles as well as the changing American milieu. The pictures can be used to supplement and illustrate any 20th-century American history course; however, the exact historical origin of the photographs is not mentioned.

Reliving the American Revolution. By Clay Coss. Civic Education Service, 1725 K St., N.W., Suite 1009, Washington, D.C., 20006. 1974.

A paperback book of primary documents accompanies this two sound-filmstrip kit examining the causes and events of the American Revolution.

Spoken Arts Treasury of American Speeches, Ballads, and Documents: From the American Revolution Through the Civil War. Spoken Arts, 310 North Ave., New Rochelle, NY 10801. 1971.

The four records in this set contain memorable addresses, songs, and documents, including the inaugural addresses of Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, and Lincoln.

The Sun Dance People: The Plains Indians, Their Past and Present. By Richard Erdoes. Random House, Inc., 201 East 50th St., New York, NY 10022. 1972.

These two sound-filmstrips depict the history, culture, and past and present difficulties of the Sioux, Cheyenne, Arapahoe, Crow, and other Plains Indians. The program takes an anthropological approach, presenting Indians within their own cultures.

Toward the Year 2000: Can We Survive the Future? Center for Humanities, 2 Holland Ave., White Plains, NY 10603. 1973.

As part of the larger *Humanities Curriculum Units* program, this two-part sound-slide program examines the impact of technology on the individual.

Viewpoints on American Abolition. By Irving Sloan. Random House, 201 East 50th St., New York, NY 10022. 1971.

This unit includes filmstrips, a simulation game, and case studies. It is designed to involve students in historical interpretation by having them explore the abolition issue from opposing points of view.

Viewpoints on American Labor. By Irving Sloan. Random House, 201 East 50th St., New York, NY 10022. 1970.

The history of the American labor movement is studied through the examination of four labor strikes between 1890 and 1915. The themes of violence, power, and the rights of the individual are stressed. The unit is self-contained and includes sound-filmstrips, a simulation game, and primary sources on the various strikes.

Voices of the Old West. Mass Communications, 25 Sylvan Rd. South, Westport, CN 16880. 1974.

Memories of frontier life by a frontier housewife, storekeeper, teamster, homesteader, prospector, rancher, wealthy Spanish landowner, and pioneer photographer are provided in five audio-cassettes.

Woman's Work, America: 1620-1920. By Richard W. Bruner and Janice Law Trecher. Warren Schloat Productions, Pleasantville, NY 10570. 1974.

Four sound-filmstrips historically survey the roles women have performed since colonial times and document the 300-year struggle for emancipation.

Collections of Documents

Alleman, Janet E., and June R. Chapin. *Voices of a Nation: A Sourcebook for American History.* Addison-Wesley, 2725 Sand Hill Rd., Menlo Park, CA 94025. 1972.

The extremely attractive format and the carefully designed teacher's guide make this collection of primary documents very useful in a secondary classroom. The material is covered topically and includes social, political, military, and economic history.

Axtell, James, ed. *The American People.* Pendulum Press, Academic Building, Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CN 06516. 1973.

This series contains documents and selected readings on the universal questions that man asks of his past--questions concerning birth, growing up, loving, working, worshipping, and dying. Titles in the series include:

Axtell, James, ed.	*The Native People of the East*
Axtell, James, ed.	*The Native People of the West*
Axtell, James, ed.	*The American People in Colonial New England*
Axtell, James, ed.	*The American People in the Colonial South*
Allmendinger, David, ed.	*The American People in the Antebellum North*
Bertrans, Wyatt B., ed.	*The American People in the Antebellum South*

Metcalf, Richard P., ed.	*The American People on the Western Frontier*
Allmendinger, Susan and David, eds.	*The American People in the Industrial City*
Kennedy, David, ed.	*The American People in the Depression*
Kennedy, David, ed.	*The American People in the Age of Kennedy*

Frazier, Thomas R., ed. *The Underside of American History*. 2nd ed. Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017. 1974.

The readings in this collection are excerpted from articles in major historical works and popular magazines. They cover topics which only recently have found their way into texts--Indians, Blacks, poor Whites, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish-Americans, workers, and women. The second edition has been considerably expanded and the content much more carefully chosen but the print size and spacing have been so reduced that it is very difficult to read. Only the most motivated and good readers would be able to handle it.

Marshall, Richard E., and John Edward Wiltz, eds. *The Search for Meaning: Viewpoints in American History*. J.B. Lippincott Company, Educational Publishing Division, Philadelphia, PA 19105. 1973.

The documents and reading selections in this volume are primarily political in nature. They are designed for mature readers. The teacher's guide is traditional but carefully prepared.

Starr, Isidore, Lewis P. Todd, and Merle Curtis, eds. *Living American Documents*. Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017. 1973.

This collection includes documents of a political nature from the Mayflower Compact of 1620 to the Kerner Report of 1968.

Touhill, Blanche M., ed. *Readings in American History*. Laidlaw Brothers, Thatcher and Madison Sts., River Forest, IL 60305. 1970.

This book of primary documents is structured on a chapter-by-chapter

basis that is meant to correlate with typical traditional high school texts in American history.

Wade, Richard C., ed. *Life in America Series.* Houghton Mifflin Company, 110 Tremont St., Boston, MA 02107. 1972.

This series examines the everyday life of anonymous Americans as well as that of elite political and economic figures. Each volume focuses on a separate group. Titles in the series include:

Wright, Conrad, ed.	*Religion in American Life*
Wade, Richard C., ed.	*Cities in American Life*
Mann, Arthur, ed.	*Immigrants in American Life*
Laslett, John, ed.	*The Workingman in American Life*
Scott, Anne F., ed.	*Women in American Life*
Stephens, Richard W., ed.	*Education in American Life*
Bressler, L. and M., eds.	*Youth in American Life*

Teacher Resources

Keller, Clair. *Involving Students in the New Social Studies.* Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon St., Boston, MA 02106. 1972.

This book provides practical strategies for engaging students in learning processes. It includes suggestions for organizing a course, conducting class discussions, developing inquiry models, individualizing instruction, team teaching, developing learning activity packages, getting high involvement class activities, and evaluating students.

Kownslar, Allan O., ed. *Teaching American History: The Quest for Relevancy.* National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036. 1974.

This book provides 11 sample lessons on American history using the inquiry process and ranging in topics from the condition of life during the Civil War to the women's equal rights movement.

O'Connor, John E., and Martin A. Jackson. *Teaching History With Film.* American Historical Association, 400 A St., S.E., Washington, D.C.,

20003. 1974.

This pamphlet is part of a new series by the American Historical Association entitled "Discussion On Teaching." Strategies and resources for using film in the classroom are provided.

Seaburg, Stanley. *Teaching the Comparative Approach to American Studies.* Foreign Policy Association, 345 E. 46th St., New York, NY 10017. 1971.

Sample lessons for a comparative approach to the American Revolution, slavery, nationalism, economic development, and interventionism are provided.

Journals

The History Teacher. California State University, Long Beach, CA 90840.

This journal publishes articles of two general types: reports on promising new history education programs, curricula, instructional techniques, and methods of evaluating classroom effectiveness; and analyses of important historical interpretations.

Social Education. National Council for the Social Studies, Business Office, 1515 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209.

All aspects of pre-college social studies content, teaching strategies, and resources are covered in articles in this journal. Occasionally, special-focus issues deal exclusively with history education.

The Social Studies. Heldref Publications, 4000 Albemarle St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016.

History instructional techniques and resources are included almost monthly in this journal, which covers all social science disciplines.

Teaching History. The Historical Association, 59A Kennington Park Rd., London, SE11 4JH, England.

This British journal publishes a great many brief articles and reports from classroom teachers describing successful classroom activities. The emphasis is on strategies that actively involve students. Many of them can easily be translated to American history classrooms.

ERIC Documents

America in the 20th Century, Grades 11-12, Course of Study. Project #1009. Ron Utech. Ottumwa Community Schools, Iowa. 1973. 132 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $6.97, plus postage. ED 087 642.

Focusing on America from 1900 to the present, the major social, political, and economic developments in this century are presented in this inquiry-oriented curriculum guide. Six units are outlined for teaching approach, activities, and resources. Topics of the units include: The Rise of Industrialism, Reform in America, The U.S. Becoming a World Power, the Golden Twenties, the New Deal and World War II, and the Challenges of a New Era.

American Studies. Central Point School District 6, Oregon. 1970. 42 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $1.95, plus postage. ED 076 479.

Offering a program for uniting English with social studies, this guide for eleventh-grade American studies integrates social sciences, humanities, history, literature, writing, art, music, and speech. Ten major units offer three optional inquiry teaching approaches and span from pre-Constitution to the 1970s. Techniques, resources, and objectives are multi-level to accommodate individual variation in maturity and ability.

Consumption Economy. Grade Ten. Resource Unit IV. Project Social Studies. Project Social Studies Curriculum Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. 1968. 231 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $12.05, plus postage. ED 086 597.

Developed by the University of Minnesota's Project Social Studies, this tenth-grade unit examines the development of the American consumption economy and its social implications. Comparing American values in the colonial era to the 1930s and the present, the course is designed to teach attitudes and inquiry skills. The objectives, content, teaching procedures, and instructional materials are described in the main body

of the unit.

Guide for Teachers of History and Social Studies in the New Haven Public High Schools. New Haven Public Schools, Connecticut. 1974. 57 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $3.32, plus postage. ED 098 099.

With the consultation of the Yale University History Department faculty, New Haven teachers reorganized their traditional, year-long, survey history courses into quarter mini-units which emphasize the inquiry approach. Provided in this booklet is a concise outline of steps for developing an effective mini-unit.

Historical Sources for Use in Schools. Occasional Paper #74-2. Michael Rawcliffe. State University of New York, Stony Brook. American Historical Association Education Project. 1974. 69 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $3.32, plus postage. ED 088 787.

This handbook of historical sources for use in the school provides suggestions, leads, and examples which encourage the teacher to use primary source materials in the classroom. The types of primary sources under examination include written documents; oral sources including interviews, songs, and music; artifacts; and visual sources including maps, paintings, photographs, and films. Illustrations of the application of these various sources in teaching strategies and learning activities are also provided.

Industrial America, Social Studies: 6416. 13. H. Folmar Ham. Dade County Public Schools, Miami, Florida. 1971. 42 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $1.95, plus postage. ED 070 727.

As one of Dade County's quinmester courses, this tenth- through twelth-grade program is designed to explore the effort of industrialization in American history. Emphasis is on students' identifying the influence of big business on industrialization, recognizing problems of the growth of industry, and proposing reforms to correct these problems. The guide is divided into broad goals, course content, inquiry-oriented activities, and materials selection suggestions.

Learning Activity Package, U.S. History III, LAPS 7 through 12. Todd Heldreth. Ninety Six High School, South Carolina. 1973. 66 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $3.32, plus postage. ED 092 471.

Six teacher-prepared Learning Activity Packages for individualized instruction in eleventh-grade United States history are provided. The materials, written on an elementary reading level, are particularly suited for students who need special assistance. Unit topics include Colonial Growth; The American Revolution; A New Nation and the Constitution; The Civil War; Exploration, Inventions, and Transportation; and World War I, World War II, and the Korean Conflict. Each unit contains a rationale, a list of behavioral objectives, resources, activities, self-evaluation tests, and suggestions for further study.

Oral History in the United States. A Directory. Gary L. Shumway. Oral History Association, New York. 1971. 121 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $5.70, plus postage. ED 059 135.

This volume indexes all the oral history materials in existance in 45 states and the District of Columbia, so far as the Oral History Association has been able to uncover them. Collection entries include institution address, major topic, memoirs of note, purpose, age and funding of the project, and extent of holdings. 230 collections are included.

A Structural Guide for Appalachian History and Culture in American History. Lionel Clark. Berea College, Kentucky. 1973. 17 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76, papercopy - $1.58, plus postage. ED 093 541.

Suggestions for integrating Appalachian history, especially north Georgia, into eleventh-grade American history are discussed. The document includes course objectives, student skills, content guide, and evaluation procedures. A bibliography includes publications on the history of the area, literature, cultural background, folklore, and journal articles.

What Happened on Lexington Green: An Inquiry into the Nature and Methods of History. Teacher and Student Manuals. Peter S. Bennett. Amherst

S2200

00111

College, Massachusetts. 1967. 56 pp. EDRS price: microfiche - $0.76 plus postage, papercopy not available from EDRS. ED 032 333.

This social studies unit uses conflicting eyewitness and secondary accounts of what happened on Lexington Green, 1775, to illustrate the nature and methods of history and to encourage the student to function as historian. Included are excerpts from court records, eyewitness and newspaper accounts, and the works of English and American historians from 1805 through 1965.

00112